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ABSTRACT

This report examines the impact that Federal programs have had on institutions of higher education and especially on their continuing education resources and facilities. Findings indicate that interest and activity in continuing education have been greatly stimulated by the Federal programs and Federal funds over the past decade. Access to Federal funds spawned hundreds of new centers and institutes, many of which operate programs of extension, continuing education, and community service. Recommendations suggest (1) that the administration make special efforts to communicate fully in the process of consolidating or eliminating categorical programs. (2) That Title I HEA as amended be funded at the level of $25 million in fiscal year 1974. (3) That the newly authorized fund for the improvement of postsecondary education undertake an examination of on-going nontraditional programs for nontraditional students. (4) That Federal agencies give priority to implementing programs to provide financial aid to parttime students on the basis of demonstrated need. (5) That Federal agencies review their policies affecting the utilization of university continuing education resources. (6) That universities and Federal agencies seek to find ways to eliminate needless duplication. (7) That consumer protection legislation be enacted. (8) That future legislation establish programs of continuing education, extension, and community service and provide sufficient funds for effective evaluation.
(Author/MJM)

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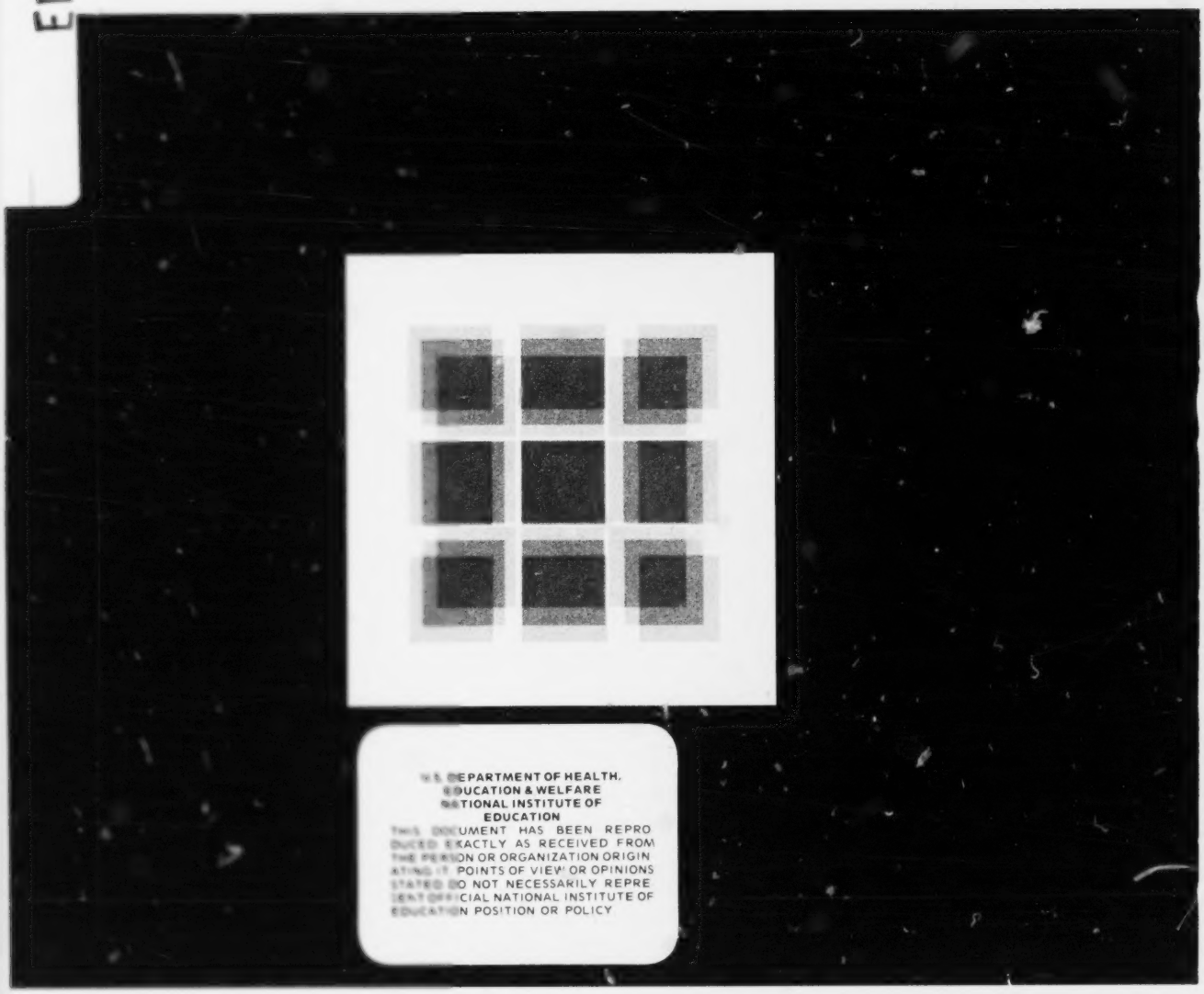
A MEASURE OF SUCCESS

Federal Support for Continuing Education



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7th ANNUAL REPORT AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COUNCIL ON EXTENSION AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

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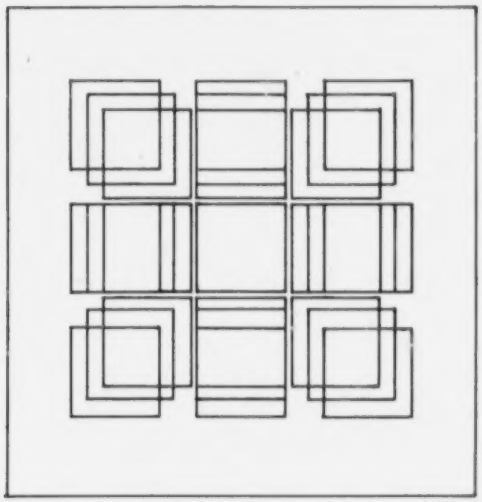
IT IS IN THE NATIONAL INTEREST OF THE UNITED STATES THAT HIGHER EDUCATION RESOURCES BE DEVELOPED AND AUGMENTED TO THE END THAT LIFELONG LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES FOR ALL CITIZENS, REGARDLESS OF PREVIOUS EDUCATION OR TRAINING, BE WIDELY AVAILABLE TO PROMOTE THE CONTINUED VITALITY OF OUR FREE SOCIETY.

ED 078786

93d Congress, 1st Session
House Document No. 93-73

A MEASURE OF SUCCESS

Federal Support for Continuing Education



7th ANNUAL REPORT AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COUNCIL ON EXTENSION AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

March 31, 1973

THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COUNCIL
ON
EXTENSION AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

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CHAIRMAN

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March 31, 1973

The President
The White House
Washington, D. C.

Dear Mr. President:

As Chairman of the National Advisory Council on Extension and Continuing Education I am privileged to transmit to you, on behalf of my colleagues, the findings and recommendations of our Seventh Annual Report, A Measure of Success: Federal Support for Continuing Education.

This report spells out in detail the extent and nature of the Federal involvement in extension, community service and continuing education.

Essentially, this involvement is characterized by many categorical programs, administered in different ways by many different Federal agencies. The sheer number of laws, programs and agencies involved produces duplication, makes coordination difficult and obscures a common sense of purpose among these disparate program activities.

In our Report, we endorse the principle of revenue sharing as an effective means for encouraging local initiative and for providing States and universities the latitude they need to set and meet their own priorities. We believe that this approach is necessary, even though in the short run considerable dislocation and turmoil may result. Concurrently, however, we sincerely urge that the categorical grant mechanism be retained on a selective basis to enable the Federal Government to ensure that national priorities are adequately supported.

Over the years, a mutually valuable partnership has developed between the Federal Government and colleges and universities in extension, continuing education and community service. The Federal Government has used the resources of higher education extensively, and institutions of higher education have willingly responded in support of Federal efforts to develop human resources and to improve the quality of life in our society. At the same time, we believe that much can be done by higher education and government to improve this partnership in the service of our people and nation.

Toward this purpose our Council is sincerely dedicated, and in this spirit we respectfully submit to you our findings and recommendations.

Respectfully,

Frank J. Van Dyke

Frank J. Van Dyke
Chairman

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SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COUNCIL ON EXTENSION AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

SEVENTH ANNUAL REPORT

March 31, 1973

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The National Advisory Council on Extension and Continuing Education was established by Public Law 89–329 (Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965). The Advisory Council has two mandates. It is required by law to ". . . review the administration and effectiveness of all federally supported extension and continuing education programs, including community service programs, make recommendations with respect thereto, and make annual reports . . . of its findings and recommendations . . . to the Secretary [of Health, Education and Welfare] and the President." The Advisory Council also advises the Commissioner of Education ". . . in the preparation of general regulations and with respect to policy matters arising in the administration of this title [Title I, HEA]. . . ."

During the course of the last year, our Council has continued and enlarged the work begun in our Sixth Annual Report, wherein we sought to identify and analyze all Federal programs in the area of extension, continuing education and community service. In the Sixth Annual Report, we identified 143 programs, representing a total budget outlay of $4.2 billion, that were operating in fiscal year 1970, the year covered by our study.

In this, our Seventh Annual Report, which covers activities for fiscal year 1972, we note a substantial increase in Federal programs which either in whole or in part provide extension, continuing education and community service. We have identified 208 such programs in our study, *A Measure of Success: Federal Support for Continuing Education* (see appendix A). These programs represent a total budget outlay of $8.2 billion, of which we estimate that approximately $2.6 billion are continuing education expenditures.

In our Sixth Annual Report, heavy emphasis was placed on our examination of the nature and extent of the Federal interest in continuing education as it is reflected in the administration of Federal agency programs. In the Seventh Annual Report, we have sought to balance this perspective by examining in depth the impact that Federal programs have had on institutions of higher education and especially on their continuing education resources and facilities.

We find that interest and activity in continuing education have been greatly stimulated by Federal programs and Federal funds over the past decade. Before this Federal impact occurred, academic departments and professional schools at institutions of higher education were often content to let responsibility for continuing education reside within the administrative framework of general extension. With the influx of Federal moneys and the opportunity to participate in social programs of high visibility and importance, academic departments and the professional schools sought and gained direct involvement in these programs, often as rivals of the existing general extension network. In addition, access to Federal funds spawned hundreds of new centers and institutes, many of which operate programs of extension, continuing education and community service.

We also find that:

- **The Federal tendency to legislate narrowly—producing categorical programs of narrow and specialized purpose—has strengthened academic tendencies to respond to these programs narrowly, through miniextension units, rather than through the general extension network.**
- **Little has been done by the Federal Government to use effectively the general extension network and to strengthen its capacity to provide community service. Conversely, much has been done to strengthen academic departments, professional schools, and specialized centers and institutes.**
- **The way in which the Federal Government provides funds for extension, continuing education and community service—through scattered, narrow project grants and programs**

of temporary duration—is essentially not well suited to achieving either Federal program objectives or the strengthening of the university's total capacity to provide public service.

We further find an increase over fiscal year 1970 in the number of Federal programs which in whole or in part sponsor activities in extension, continuing education and community service. This increase represents a continuation of the past pattern of many programs, established through many laws, administered by many agencies and operating in isolation from each other.

We find that the single most substantial amount of Federal activity is in meeting manpower needs in three fields: Education, health, and social welfare. This concern does not reflect any broad concept of national manpower strategy but reflects rather a direct Federal assumption of major responsibility for improving education, health, and social welfare programs. In this context, we also find that a prominent feature of such human development programs is emphasis on education for the poor and for special minorities, especially Blacks, Chicanos, and American Indians.

We find increasing dissatisfaction in Congress and in the administration with the large number of narrow categorical grant programs, as depicted in some depth in our Sixth Annual Report. Specifically, efforts are underway to use general support legislation and special revenue sharing in place of categorical programs. Essentially, this approach reflects discouragement with the Federal Government's ability to coordinate successfully many special purpose programs. It also evidences a greater willingness to enable States, communities, and universities to set their own priorities, rather than having these priorities set by the Federal Government. At the same time, this trend toward general support is not an all-encompassing panacea. There are priorities which can and should be legitimately set by the Federal Government, and the availability of Federal funds can legitimately be tied to action toward achieving these priority objectives.

The solution, therefore, ought not be to eliminate all categorical programs. Rather, the solution to the current maze of categorical legislation should combine two ingredients: (1) Consolidation of categorical programs which are to be continued in response to social needs accorded high Federal priority, and (2) general support legislation to enable States, communities, and universities to meet their own priority needs for spending and action.

In another vein, we find that federally supported continuing education activities have not always served well specific kinds of client groupings. To the extent that work patterns and family responsibilities of men and women differ in our society, the educational responses must in important respects differ also. The woman returning to a career interrupted by years of domestic responsibility represents a continuing education need essentially unique to women. Little, as yet, has been done to recognize and accommodate this need.

In particular, we find that the major clientele for continuing education—the part-time students—has, until the recent enactment of the Education Amendments of 1972, been excluded from the benefits of Federal student aid programs. Further, we find that institutional resources in the form of scholarships, counseling, health, and other aid services are made available almost exclusively to full-time students and not to part-time students.

Professionals whose skills and educational qualifications are made surplus by dislocations in the economy are another critical client group which have not yet been well served, even though funds and activity have been directed toward this purpose. In addition, the Federal Government has not yet succeeded adequately in protecting students and itself from shoddy and ineffective course offerings through independent study.

Finally, we find that a major limitation in improving extension, continuing education, and community service is lack of systematic and valid measures of success and failure. Reliable, comprehensive evaluations of federally supported programs are the exception; it should be the rule. Without effective evaluation, program changes, program planning, and program funding operate under conditions of excessive uncertainty. To improve what exists, much must be known which remains unknown. Decisions on funding and on program administration must be made on evidences of program failure and success.

The following recommendations are addressed to these findings, which are presented in greater depth and specificity in appendix A. □

RECOMMENDATIONS

I

Considerable interest is being generated for consolidation of categorical grant programs into programs of more generalized support. Under the President's revenue sharing proposals, many community service and human resources development programs having continuing education components are likely to be terminated as discrete categorical programs. We believe these trends are basically healthy, even though in the short run considerable dislocation and turmoil may result. At the same time, we believe that categorical legislation will still be needed if the Federal Government is to ensure that adequate attention is given, State by State, to programs and problems accorded a high national priority.

We recommend, therefore, that in the process of consolidating or eliminating categorical programs the administration make special efforts to communicate fully and widely the basis upon which this is to be done; and that special care be taken to ensure that under consolidation or revenue sharing, the Federal Government still retains sufficient leverage and statutory authority to meet needs of high priority which remain unmet under revenue sharing or generalized forms of financial support.

II

Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 as amended is unique in that it enables communities to solve their problems according to priorities established locally using the resources of local institution(s) of higher education. It is a categorical program only in that communities cope with specific and finite problems. It is broadly rather than narrowly based because an array of difficult problems may be attacked with an infinite variety of educational and research methods. Finally, it has served as a successful prototype of Federal special revenue sharing.

The Education Amendments of 1972 authorize "Special Programs and Projects Relating to National and Regional Problems" (sec. 106a, Title I, HEA as amended). Within the broad problem areas relating to technological and social changes and environmental pollution, the National Advisory Council on Extension and Continuing Education will recommend, annually, to the Commissioner of Education special priority areas of regional and national concern. Use of this new provision of Title I should enable the Commissioner to focus the attention of national education resources on specific problem areas.

We recommend that Title I HEA as amended be funded at the level of $25 million in fiscal year 1974; and that section 106 be implemented consistent with our current priorities and the findings which will emerge from our evaluation study. In making this recommendation we are aware that the President's budget for fiscal year 1974 was based on advice which conflicts with that of this Council. We respectfully request reconsideration of the funding level for Title I HEA based upon the report on community service and continuing education programs (Appendix B).[1]

III

The thrust of university-based continuing education programs has historically been the design and implementation of nontraditional educational programs for part-time students. Many of these programs have been successfully tested and demonstrated over a period of time for specific purposes and for specific clientele. By undertaking innovative educational programs, and by

[1] Mr. Marshall Parker and Mrs. Ruth Crassweller have indicated that they wished to be shown as having voted in opposition to this recommendation.

exploring new avenues to nontraditional learning experiences, continuing education activities have broadened considerably our knowledge of nontraditional concepts of learning and have strengthened the abilities of university-based continuing education efforts to respond to new and unexpected educational needs. In some instances, such as the University Without Walls and the Syracuse Consortium, Federal moneys have been used effectively to promote and expand these efforts.

We recommend that the newly authorized fund for the improvement of post-secondary education undertake an examination of on-going nontraditional programs for nontraditional students sponsored by university-based continuing education units, and that it implement a policy of identifying programs of innovation and quality for the purpose of funding and replicating these programs elsewhere in the interest of accelerating the improvement of post-secondary education.

IV

There is no single Federal student assistance program that is designed to aid adult part-time students exclusively. The financial needs of these students have been historically excluded from many Federal aid programs or have received such minimal consideration by them that the ability of part-time students to continue their education has been seriously limited. The Carnegie Commission on nontraditional studies reports that a majority of adult part-time students (53 percent) identify "cost" as the one obstacle that exceeds all others in hindering their educational goals. The recent enactment of the Education Amendments of 1972, wherein part-time students are made eligible to benefit financially from many Federal programs, promises to alleviate this situation considerably. It remains uncertain, however, how effective these programs will be in actually implementing plans to assist part-time students.

We recommend that Federal agencies, particularly the Office of Education, give priority to implementing programs to provide financial aid to part-time students on the basis of demonstrated need.

V

Increasing numbers of women are reentering the labor market after a prolonged period of absence from school or work occasioned by child-rearing responsibilities. Mothers who wish to continue their education experience problems in accommodating their children while they study or attend class. For these and other reasons, women constitute a special case and effective responses to their learning needs often require special facilities and supporting services; among these are child day care centers, counseling for academic and vocational purposes, and flexible university practices for crediting learning which may have taken place many years ago.

We are pleased to note that increased recognition of the special continuing education needs of women is resulting in the greater availability of supporting services and facilities at many institutions. We applaud these developments and recommend their adoption to colleges and universities which have not yet taken steps to meet the special continuing education needs of women.

VI

Federal agencies have used university continuing education resources extensively but have refrained from providing significant financial assistance directly to the formal continuing education units of universities. Such assistance is vital to these units in terms of staffing, equipment and physical facilities and is essential to helping them provide long-term and more effective responses to community needs and Federal objectives. Our report confirms the prevalence of this condition and notes also the role Federal agencies have inadvertently played in encouraging universities to expand their miniextension activities. In effect, these miniextension activities compete with the formal university extension units for funds, clientele, and access to university resources. It is our observation that this practice often leads to a costly duplication of university program efforts and an inefficient application of university-wide continuing education resources toward achieving Federal objectives.

We recommend therefore that Federal agencies rigorously review their policies affecting the utilization of university continuing education resources, and undertake programs that will provide funds directly to the formal university extension units for staffing, equipment, and physical facilities that would enable these units to provide a more central and dependable base through which all elements and disciplines of

the university could deliver continuing education services in response to Federal program priorities.

VII

No effort is made here to suggest the manner in which higher education institutions should organize their extension and continuing education efforts. It is clear that the efforts range from highly centralized structures to extremely fragmented and unstructured approaches. Each institution must, of course, determine for itself what is the best approach for it to pursue.

Our concern, as a Council, is that the fragmentation of Federal programs, when coupled with university tendencies to provide continuing education and extension services on a fragmented basis, may constitute a partnership which is neither most economical nor most effective.

What is needed is a careful review, on the part of each university, of its mission in continuing education and extension. Also needed is a better understanding within the Federal Government of the structures internal to the university with which they contract or to which they award grants.

We recommend to universities and to Federal agencies that they seek to find ways to eliminate needless duplication of services in extension and continuing education.

VIII

It is apparent that current policies and statutes have not proven effective in controlling fraudulent and unscrupulous organizations offering independent study programs. In addition to victimization of individuals, Federal agencies such as the Department of Defense and the Veterans Administration experience difficulty in safeguarding public moneys intended for legitimate programs of study. The Federal Interagency Committee on Education and the Veterans Administration are making progress in seeking to remedy this situation, but more remains to be done.

We recommend that consumer protection legislation be enacted to curb the activities of fraudulent independent study organizations. One approach toward corrective legislation might parallel the provisions of the Federal Land Sales Act, which require full disclosure to the prospective buyer of relevant particulars, a 48-hour grace period during which the transaction may be canceled by the purchaser, and legal remedies in case the vendor fails to meet his publicized obligations.

IX

Evaluation of the accomplishments of social programs is especially difficult. Progress has been made in this regard, however, and greater evaluation capability now exists within and outside government than ever before. Without effective evaluation, sound planning is jeopardized, program improvements are made on a hit or miss basis at best, and decisions on further funding cannot be based on factual grounds. Despite progress, we believe that further improvement is necessary and will prove highly beneficial.

We recommend that future legislation establishing programs of continuing education, extension and community service provide sufficient funds for effective evaluation. □

Appendix A

A MEASURE OF SUCCESS: FEDERAL SUPPORT FOR CONTINUING EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

The emphasis of the Council's investigations leading to our annual report last year centered on the identification of Federal programs of extension, continuing education and community service. In support of this purpose, we also prepared several case studies of representative programs which examined in some depth the university-Federal agency interactions which characterized those programs. For the most part, however, our concern was focused on the Federal role in continuing education, rather than on the role of universities or on important developments and trends affecting the field of higher continuing education.

This year, in addition to a review of Federal program effort, we have sought to examine the effects of federally-supported programs on university continuing education activities. Further, we have sought to assess some of the major new developments—such as the external degree—in order to portray changes taking place in continuing education.

Instead of case studies of representative programs, this year we delineate significant continuing education efforts addressed to specific client groupings. In this effort, major attention is given to the largest of these client groups, women. In addition, descriptive accounts of program efforts for a specialized clientele, such as prisoners and the educated unemployed, are included.

In obtaining relevant data, and in seeking to draw meaning from it, we have interviewed and contacted hundreds of government officials and representatives of institutions of higher education. Once we were able to identify those Federal grant programs that had significant extension, continuing education and community services components to them, we undertook to analyze their objectives and the clientele these programs were designed to serve. We noted the common and differentiating characteristics of these programs; their sponsoring agencies and the levels at which they were administered; their level of funding; the histories of their legislative authorizations; how well they reflected administration and congressional priorities; and the extent to which institutions of higher education were involved in their implementation.

To determine this latter involvement, we made over 50 visits to various academic institutions: Land-grant and State-supported universities, State colleges and technical institutes, private universities and colleges, and public and private junior colleges. These visits were designed to reach some estimate of the impact of Federal programs on these institutions, with primary focus on the extent to which continuing education activities were or were not affected by them. During the course of these campus visits, we also assessed recent developments in the area of continuing education—from an academic perspective.

In visiting these campuses, we met with a significant number of presidents, chancellors, and other senior executive officers. Our primary focus, however, was on interviewing the deans and directors of extension and continuing education, and their staffs, whom we regarded as the individuals most closely attuned to the implementation of continuing education activities.

For the most part, our discussions and interviews came after our staff had established—usually through primary sources—a basic understanding of the topic concerned. In some sections, as will be noted when relevant, we relied on secondary sources, on questionnaires, and on fiscal and program data generated by Federal departments and agencies.

Our Sixth Annual Report gained wide circulation among professionals in continuing education. We are gratified by the many expressions of support and interest which resulted. At the same time, little official action was taken within the Federal Government over the past year which can be directly attributed to our findings and recommendations. Perhaps our major official impact was to highlight the intrinsic problems resulting from many discrete, narrow and uncoordinated programs of extension, continuing education,

and community service. Action to remedy this situation through broader legislative authorizations and through government reorganization is now in prospect, and to the extent that our findings lend support to these efforts, we see hopes for major improvement.

In a more specific vein, our 1972 report stated: ". . . the vast number of project activities and of institutions and communities involved make a systematic evaluation of Title I (HEA) activities virtually impossible, unless a major effort for this purpose is organized and funded." In response to this, in part, the Higher Education Amendments Act of 1972 assigned responsibility to this Council to undertake the required evaluation and authorized funds necessary for this purpose. A separate report on the present status of this project will be made on March 31, 1973, to the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare of the Senate and the Committee on Education and Labor of the House of Representatives.

Attached as appendix B of this report is the Office of Education's report summarizing activities under the Title I (HEA) program for fiscal year 1972. The fiscal year 1972 appropriation for Title I was $9.5 million. For fiscal year 1973, the administration's budgetary request for Title I was $5.7 million. Although an appropriations measure was enacted to increase this figure to $15 million, the Office of Management and Budget (as of this date) has impounded those Title I funds which exceed $5.7 million. As a result, the level of expenditure for fiscal year 1973 is limited to the $5.7 million budgetary request.

This year, we have noted again the magnitude of Federal support for continuing education—its diversity, importance, and scope. We also have been impressed by the growth and vitality evidenced within the field of continuing education. This field has brought into being much of what is new, creative, and important for higher education. It is our hope, and our central purpose, to contribute in whatever ways we can to create a more effective partnership between Federal programs and continuing education resources. Toward this end we, as a Council, are dedicated. And in this way, we hope to serve the American people and the purposes for which this Council was established. □

EXTENSION, CONTINUING EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY SERVICE: DIMENSIONS AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FEDERAL EFFORT

COUNCIL RESPONSIBILITY

Section 109 of the Higher Education Act (as amended) provides that the National Advisory Council on Extension and Continuing Education

> *. . . shall review the administration and effectiveness of all federally supported extension and continuing education programs, including community service programs, make recommendations with respect thereto, and make annual reports . . . of its findings and recommendations to the Secretary [of Health, Education and Welfare] and to the President.*

In direct response to this statutory requirement, this section undertakes an examination of the Federal involvement in extension, continuing education and community service.

OVERVIEW

The great welter of social legislation over the past decade stemmed from deep concern with egalitarian values and a growing impatience with many of the more intractable problems of our society. In retrospect, it is clear that too little planning, research or even organized thought went into the conception of many of these programs. They were begun under conditions marked by a sense of imperative need to take action and by the assumption that a well-intentioned government could achieve greatly by spending greatly.

Today, this panoply of programs urgently needs reexamination in the light of experience. Some of these programs are poorly administered, others are poorly conceived. They were enacted over time to serve discrete goals, and were not bound together by unifying policies nor well-coordinated administrative efforts. The administration has decided that many of these programs cannot meet reasonable tests of cost-effectiveness, and some have never been adequately evaluated to determine their relative worth. There is a growing feeling in both the administration and in the Congress that what has been created is not in every case viable, but there is otherwise little agreement as to what is wrong and why.

ROOTS OF DISCONTENT

Even a cursory examination of the programs included in this review points up the major problems. There are too many discrete programs, each established by separate statutes, and administered independently of each other. This results in duplication, overlap, difficulty in coordination, and scattered responsibility for programs with similar purposes or a similar clientele. Most of these programs have a short or an uncertain life span: as a result, universities are reluctant to become too heavily involved in them because of a fear that their eventual demise will have traumatic effects. Many of these programs disburse funds only through the project grant mechanism; consequently a given institution has no assurance of funding continuity or grant renewal. The mechanics and philosophies of fund disbursements vary from program to program, and no consistent rationale governs such basic matters as the source and level of matching funds. Finally, the program priorities and major objectives of the Federal Government do not always match the priorities and objectives of educational institutions; doing the things which attract Federal funds may not always be consistent with the best interests of the university.

As awareness of these problems has grown within the administration and in the concerned committees of the Congress, the search for a solution has quickened. Both branches of Government have fastened on essentially the same solution: Replace the vast number of specialized categorical programs with a manageable number of programs featuring broad funding approaches.

The administration—eager to terminate some of the existing social programs and restore a balanced budget—sees a shift to general support as an expenditure-saving measure which also puts an end to many Great Society programs of doubtful achievement. Even many of the staunchest supporters of education in Congress are now convinced that continued spawning of special purpose programs through isolated pieces of legislation must eventually end in chaos; they seek some reasonable alternative which will ease the financial stringencies in higher education while at the same time relieving Congress of the burden of considering numerous bills, each having specialized purposes and attracting specialized support. Educational associations, each attached to and supportive of discrete programs that serve their own interests, may be ready to scrap the present system of many laws for many purposes in favor of a few major pieces of legislation which will provide a base of Federal support for higher education, provided they see clear advantages in doing so.

This broadly supported and growing effort to move from categorical to general support masks a major issue which for various reasons has been permitted to lie dormant. Essentially, the issue is this: *If the priorities which universities establish for themselves under general support are not consistent with those held by the administration and the Congress what will be the recourse?* Will Congress and the administration long be content to fund universities if their use of these funds does not reflect congressional or administration perceptions of national priorities? The answer is obviously negative, and the pendulum can be expected to swing again in favor of categorical legislation through which institutional priorities are again directly influenced by Federal dollars.

In short, the growing adherence to the concept of general support seems to rest on dissatisfaction with what has resulted from categorical legislation. Yet categorical legislation is the only existing means for ensuring that Government funds are used for purposes perceived by Government as meeting the most important national needs. Unless all historical precedents have long meaning, the romance with general support can be expected to lead to a mismatched arrangement between conflicting congressional and administration objectives and end in divorce. *What is needed is not a blanket renunciation of the categorical principle, but a more rational and codified application of it.* Wholesale adoption of general support is a beguilingly simple alternative. Its basic simplicity cannot be expected to weather the intricate complexities which enter into the processes of Federal assistance to higher education.

SIXTH REPORT

Our Sixth Annual Report was our first concerted attempt to identify the programs and the problems of most direct concern to our Council. For program identification purposes, we used the following operational definition.

> *. . . those federally funded programs which provide higher education, usually on a part-time basis, for adults; or which through research application, instructional activities and technical assistance use the resources of higher education in support of community efforts to mitigate social problems. Included are those Federal programs which support higher educational opportunities for adults who are returning for full-time study after a substantial break in the normal educational process. We will refer to all such activities as programs of higher continuing education.*

In our Sixth Annual Report, we identified some 143 discrete programs, in operation in fiscal year 1970, which in whole or in part met this definition. In this report, covering fiscal year 1972, we have identified 208 relevant programs, using the same definition.[1] This increase resulted from two factors: (1) The number of new programs begun exceeded the number of existing programs terminated, and (2) better agency reporting permitted identification of several programs not included in last year's tabulation.

PROGRAM EXPENDITURES

The program expenditures for each of the 208 programs included in this review total over $8 billion. Since these expenditure data were gathered after fiscal year 72 expenditures were rather precisely known, a high level of confidence in this figure obtains (see tables 1 and 2). However, since most of the programs included are only *in part* concerned with continuing education, and because most agencies do not separately

[1] See Appendix C.

Table 1.—Program purpose

Program purpose	Number of programs	Federal program expenditures	Continuing education expenditures
1. Educational personnel development	51	$2, 572, 969, 000	$288, 471, 000
2. Public health (personnel development and community service)	59	643, 690, 000	229, 317, 000
3. Vocational education	9	48, 857, 000	23, 202, 000
4. Miscellaneous education for the general public	23	35, 054, 000	24, 134, 000
5. Veterans education	3	1, 906, 406. 000	1, 367, 500, 000
6. Community service:			
a. Environmental problems	12	36, 304, 000	20, 204, 000
b. Problems of the disadvantaged	21	1, 219, 112, 000	183, 837, 000
c. Crime and delinquency	12	484, 654, 000	126, 459, 000
d. Improvement of State and local government	5	1, 121, 882, 000	124, 618, 000
e. Multipurpose	3	10, 500, 000	10, 500, 000
f. Other	2	16, 024, 000	13, 124, 000
7. Agricultural production and rural life	5	161, 094, 000	161, 094, 000
8. Business and industry	3	22, 736, 000	22, 736, 000
Total	208	8, 279, 282, 000	2, 595, 196, 000

account for expenditures for continuing education as a distinct accounting category, the continuing education expenditures shown in table 1 (approximately $2.6 billion) are correspondingly less precise.

The level of confidence in these figures varies from program to program. For example, the Veterans Administration was able to supply us with precise data on the educational expenditures which met our operational definitions; with respect to certain other programs, only rough estimates could be obtained, and in some cases all that could be reasonably established was an estimated range of expenditure or percentage range of the total expenditure. No fault to these agencies is in any way implied. We obviously cannot expect them to keep accounts which mesh neatly with our operational definition of continuing education. The purpose of raising the uncertain nature of total continuing education expenditures is therefore simply to present the fact that the figure is reliable only within uncertain limits. It is composed of precise data, solid estimates and informed guesses. Without major changes in fiscal accountability practices, this figure is necessarily tentative; however, in all doubtful cases we accepted the low estimate or percentage range, so that we are relatively assured that the continuing education expenditures are at least at the total level shown in table 1.

SEPARATE IDENTITY AND VISIBILITY

Few Federal programs are solely and completely concerned with extension, continuing education and community service. Except for the Cooperative Extension effort and the GI bill, most of these single-focus programs are comparatively small and lack aggressive support from the Congress, the administration, and institutions of higher education. Among the more visible of these programs are the community service program (Title I, HEA) funded at $9.5 million; the sea grant program funded at $17.2 million; and the public programs of the National Endowment for the Humanities, funded at $2.3 million.

Most continuing education activities, rather than having separate identity, are organically a part of an effort having broader or very different central objectives. For example, project Head Start is essentially a program designed to better prepare the pre-school-age child from a poverty background to enter and succeed in school. Most of the $376 million expenditure on this program is directly aimed at producing that result. At the same time, Head Start also sponsors intensive continuing education programs for employees of child development centers, at a cost of roughly $18 million. In one phase of this continuing education effort, 9,600 persons are enrolled in continuing education activities

Table 2.—Programs with extension, continuing education and community service features

Agency	Number of programs[1]	Total program expenditure
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare	100	$3, 303, 940, 000
National Science Foundation	15	105, 634, 000
Atomic Energy Commission	13	2, 388, 000
National Foundation on the Arts and the Humanities	11	20, 481, 000
Department of Justice	11	474, 654, 000
Environmental Protection Agency	9	24, 690, 000
Department of the Interior	7	20, 459, 000
Department of Defense	5	5, 877, 000
Department of Housing and Urban Development	4	389, 200, 000
President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports	4	59, 000
Veterans Administration	4	2, 024, 688, 000
Office of Economic Opportunity	3	202, 100, 000
Department of the Treasury	3	318, 000
Smithsonian Institution	3	1, 036, 000
Department of Labor	3	1, 455, 652, 000
Civil Service Commission	2	13, 918, 000
Small Business Administration	2	10, 840, 000
Department of Transportation	2	3, 130, 000
Department of Commerce	2	60, 873, 000
Tennessee Valley Authority	2	9, 213, 000
National Aeronautics and Space Administration	1	725, 000
National Gallery of Art	1	120, 000
Department of Agriculture	1	149, 287, 000
Total	208[1]	8, 279, 282, 000

[1] See appendix C for a complete listing of programs.

for degree credit in over 400 colleges and universities. Other similar examples could be cited, but the point is essentially this: Many large continuing education efforts are imbedded within the fabric of major programs whose central purpose is not continuing education. This basic fact has many and important consequences.

When a continuing education effort constitutes a small part of a major program, its purpose is to support the central program. Somewhat off the mainstream of program activity, it usually gets little top management attention and offers limited scope for upward mobility to the responsible staff people. Concurrently, the staff members responsible for continuing education often possess expertise in the major program area (e.g. disadvantaged pre-school-age children) but have little grounding in continuing education and limited knowledge of institutional continuing education arrangements. Finally, the existence of many scattered, special-purpose continuing education efforts buried within various social programs makes coordination among continuing education programs especially difficult. At the apex of an agency the size of HEW, the fact that a teacher development program exists within Head Start is easily overlooked and coordination with Office of Education teacher development efforts is virtually nonexistent.

ADMINISTRATION OF GRANTS

In our Sixth Annual Report we detailed the major problems associated with the administration of educational grant programs. Most of these problems remain; the major exeception has been the effort of OMB to standardize grant application procedures and to speed the review and decisionmaking process on applications. We believe this effort constitutes an effective start toward developing a more rational grants administration system, but much more remains needed.

Basically, if one compares disbursement of Federal moneys through grants to the disbursement of funds through contracts, glaring differences are apparent. A

whole body of organized law, Comptroller General decisions and standardized administrative requirements govern the contracting function; the obligations of the Government and of the recipients of Federal funds are both spelled out in specific terms, and routine interaction between the Government and the contracting party is built into the contracts system.

By contrast, the grants system operates differently from agency to agency and between one program and another. In some respects, this lack of a central body of law and administrative direction permits great flexibility and allows the grants instrument to accomplish a wide variety of desired objectives. On the other hand, the looseness of the grants system can lead not only to chaotic administration, but to possibilities of abuse.

For example, last year we stated that: "At the present time, the Federal Government has no workable system to identify those individuals and institutions whose services are being contracted by direct recipients of Federal grants." Since then, we understand that the Department of Justice has been asked to investigate possible abuses in the Office of Education. Whatever the outcome of this investigation, we expect that it will and should lead to a more refined and accurate system for tracking—down to the eventual recipient—funds allocated through grants. It is important for the Government to know how, by whom, and for what purpose its moneys are eventually spent. Certainly, any major scandal in the eductaional grants process would place stigmas on the whole process of Federal assistance to higher education and cloud, however unfairly, much of the excellent work now being accomplished. If nothing else, the need to protect the Government and academic institutions from a partnership which can be abused by either or both requires better grants management than has existed in the past.

GRANTS ADMINISTRATORS

Two significant changes have been made in who administers Federal grants. First, the old line, career civil servant has given way to a new generation of administrators deliberately selected to be more responsive to both the clientele groups served by the programs they administer and to the politically responsible leadership of the executive branch. Instead of the former loyalties to profession and the ideal of political neutrality, many of the new generation of decisionmakers have strong partisan loyalties and commitment to the causes of the groups and interests their programs serve. Indeed, they are frequently representatives or leaders of the programs' client groups.

Second, the level of decision has, for many programs, been moved from Washington to the field level to make programs even more responsive to those being served.

These changes have undeniable merits in their potential for democratizing the governmental decisionmaking process and strengthening program relevance to local needs, priorities, and preferences. However, these changes also embrace considerable risks to the very integrity of the processes of government.

The risks, of course, are that grants administrators with deep commitments to partisan values and social causes may experience special difficulties in maintaining impartiality and objectivity. At the same time, this new generation of administrators is more vulnerable to accusations of favoritism because they lack that appearance of impartiality and neutrality which was automatically conferred on their predecessors who were the products of a civil service whose hallmark was presumed to be neutrality toward political and social issues.

This combination of factors—difficulty of the new breed in maintaining objectivity and their vulnerability to appearances of partiality—make it all the more essential to build into the grants process additional guarantees to ensure its integrity. Much has been done in this regard with the process of awarding contracts, and some of these same safeguards can be used effectively in strengthening the system for awarding grants.

MAJOR CHARACTERISTICS: MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT

Among the 208 programs reviewed, 118 are essentially concerned with manpower development in three major fields: education, health and social welfare. This concern does not appear to stem from any broad concept of national manpower strategy; rather it stems directly from the Federal assumption of major responsibility for health, education, and social welfare. The Federal determination to improve education by direct intervention of Federal dollars and program initiatives required an improvement in the caliber of teachers and school administrators. Federal efforts to improve public health led to programs of education and training for health personnel; the vastly expanded Federal role in welfare activities led to continuing education programs for persons employed in social service. In essence, therefore, the Federal Government assumed major respon-

sibility for manpower development in those fields which are essentially *within the public sector.*

This thrust has largely gone unchallenged; it has been generally accepted that the Federal Government's continuing education activities should be heavily skewed toward those fields in which Government agencies are most actively involved. Yet this acceptance, this condonation, of what now exists bears closer scrutiny.

The well-being of the Nation is dependent on the success of the private, as well as the public sector. It is perhaps as much in the public interest to develop automobile design engineers who can build safer cars as it is to train nurses to provide better patient care. Similarly, the Federal Government continues to invest heavily in supporting education of teachers—a field already overcrowded—apparently under the rationale that this is a proper function of government, regardless of the comparative and intrinsic need.

Three things are essentially at fault. First, limiting government-supported manpower programs to fields in the public sector requires reexamination. A better criteria would be the importance of a field to the national interest; the question of whether the field is basically in the public or the private sector should be largely irrelevant. Second, a prime condition for Federal support should be a demonstrable quantitative shortage or qualitative inadequacy in the manpower field concerned; a shortage or inadequacy which can only or best be remedied by Federal support. Finally, it is essential that manpower development programs operate within a national manpower strategy, so that reasonable priorities can be set and rational responses to these priorities can be made.

PRIORITIES, THE POOR AND MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT

A prominent feature of many of the present manpower development programs is emphasis on education for the poor and for specified minority groupings: basically, Blacks, Chicanos, and American Indians. The objective of these programs is to lessen the socio-economic gap between these minority groups and the prevalent national norms, through a wide variety of approaches.

For example, the Office of Minority Business Enterprise of the Department of Commerce provides business management education and training, primarily for Black entrepreneurs; the Social and Rehabilitation Service aggressively seeks to attract disproportionate numbers of Blacks and Chicanos to its educational programs to provide greater racial identity between welfare workers and welfare recipients; and the NIH continuing education nursing scholarships give priority to "members of disadvantaged groups."

Given the objectives of such programs, they obviously favor minority students and institutions: This is the purpose for which they were enacted. At the same time, they have been attacked from two directions. One set of charges is that they do too little to raise the socio-economic status of minority group members; another set of charges is that they produce discrimination in reverse by singling out minorities for favored treatment. These dual charges have produced substantial controversy, some of which has resulted in court action. The problem, however, is less basically a legal one than it is a clash of competing value systems and a question of the extent to which the Federal Government should intervene in order to "level" society. This issue is, of course, fundamental to the whole question of the role of the Federal Government in the socio-economic sphere; it far transcends those Federal grant programs included in this study. Accordingly, it is raised here solely to indicate the existence of a growing controversy about the Federal role and a need on the part of all three branches of the Federal Government to give greater definity to this role than now exists. Without better definity, grant-receiving academic institutions—following Government guidelines—leave themselves open to controversy and to law suits, and are asked to make decisions, for or against minority interests, under conditions of ambiguity which unfairly subject those decisions to question and attack.

SPECIFIC PROGRAM PURPOSES

The principal purposes served by the 208 programs having continuing education characteristics are reflected in table 1. Within each of these major program purposes, however, great diversity may exist as between one program and another.

Fifty-one programs are basically intended to strengthen the competencies of educators and school administrators. Specifically, included among these 51 programs are efforts to:

- **Train public school teachers to conduct adult education programs.**
- **Prepare public school teachers to work with physically handicapped children.**
- **Enable teachers at Black colleges to obtain advanced degrees and further graduate training.**

- **Train librarians for the public school systems.**
- **Train teacher trainers.**
- **Train vocational educators.**
- **Train teachers in better use of instructional methods and media.**
- **Train teachers to become educational administrators.**
- **Strengthen the teaching of science and mathematics.**
- **Prepare teachers to work with migrant children.**

In fiscal year 1972, these continuing education activities for educational personnel were funded at nearly $300 million.

In the main, recipients of these funds have been the various "teachers colleges" and university schools of education. Within these schools of education and teachers colleges, this influx of money *for continuing education* has had relatively little effect on curriculum or on policy. Experienced teachers, returning for graduate work, typically take the same courses under the same professors as those students preparing to become teachers. Various short courses and "summer institutes" specifically designed for the mature teacher do exist, but these titles are sometimes overlaid on a course content which looks surprisingly like Education 101.

In short, the teacher returning for academic refreshment is often not viewed as having appreciably different skills or educational needs from the regular student. What little we know about the education of adults is disregarded or ignored, and the returning 40-year-old is treated—educationally, at least—as a conventional 20-year-old student.

PUBLIC HEALTH

Fifty-nine programs were basically concerned with improving health services and/or providing continuing education opportunities to health personnel. Typical specific objectives among these 59 programs are:

- **Training State Public Health workers in communicable disease control.**
- **Training personnel in the care of mentally retarded children.**
- **Providing advanced training in research to nurses.**
- **Continuing education for physicians in various medical specialties—heart, cancer, stroke, etc.**
- **Providing professional nurse training to practical nurses.**
- **Providing better health services to the poor.**

These 59 programs, with an annual continuing education cost of about $230 million, are for the most part operated by or through schools of medicine, public health, and nursing. *Perhaps because of the obvious need for health professionals to keep abreast of new medical developments, perhaps for other reasons as well, continuing education has probably been more thoroughly accepted and more highly regarded by the medical professions than by any other vocational field.* Similarly, many schools of medicine, nursing, and public health give high priority to their continuing education programs. Instead of second class status, continuing education programs in the medical sciences typically enjoy substantial prestige and respect, both from within and outside the university.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

As the term "vocational education" is used here, it refers to vocational preparation or strengthening in fields other than education or health. Among the specific purposes served by the nine programs classified as vocational are:

- **Prepare unemployed scientists and engineers for other vocational opportunities.**
- **Train museum and historical society personnel in their role as educators of the public.**
- **Conference grants designed to afford leading scientists opportunities to meet, discuss recent research findings, and exchange information and ideas.**

Of these programs, the largest, most visible and most problem-plagued is the technology mobilization and reemployment program (TMRP) operated by the Department of Labor. (A more thorough treatment of this program is provided in the chapter, "Unemployed Scientists and Engineers). Designed to assist engineers, scientists and technicians who lost their jobs in defense and aerospace cutbacks to find reemployment, the program has floundered from the beginning. In addition to support for retraining, this program provides funds for job search and relocation and for studies on skills reconversion. Essentially, the Labor Department was not prepared to carry out the objectives of the program, and educational institutions were slow in responding to the unique educational requirements of these unemployed professionals.

MISCELLANEOUS PROGRAMS FOR THE GENERAL PUBLIC

The 23 programs classified under the miscellaneous category include programs widely divergent in purpose. Among the specific characteristics of these programs are:

- **Educational programs in Civil Defense and recovery from natural disasters.**
- **Educational programs sponsored by the Public Broadcasting Corp.**
- **Space Science education programs conducted by NASA, and the public understanding of science programs conducted by the National Science Foundation.**
- **Various programs of physical fitness and health exercise.**
- **The extension services of the National Gallery of Art.**
- **Projects to make the public increasingly aware of the knowledge and insights of the humanities as applied to contemporary issues.**

Several of the programs included in this category differ from most other programs included in the study in that they are conducted directly by Government employees, rather than by university faculty under Federal funds. For example, most of the Civil Defense programs fall into this category. In such instances, decisions were made internally to reach the public directly through Government conceived and operated continuing education activities, rather than to use universities as the intermediaries.

Since the number of such programs is small, the costs relatively modest and the rationale for conducting them directly fairly persuasive, there has been little friction and no serious controversy that Government is usurping a legitimate role of educational institutions.

VETERANS EDUCATION

The GI bill remains by far the largest single educational program designed to enable adults to return to higher educational pursuits on either part- or full-time basis. Today, the GI bill serves as a compensation for time and opportunities lost during military service, as an enlistment inducement and as an educational program designed to incorporate veterans into the work force in a more advantageous role than would otherwise be available.

The total costs of the GI bill have nearly doubled between fiscal years 1970 and 1972, reflecting the obligations built up during the Vietnam war, escalating educational costs, and the accelerated rate of military discharges. In addition, an increasing number of military personnel on active duty are using their veteran's educational benefits to prepare for a second career upon retirement or to improve their promotional opportunities while on active service.

COMMUNITY SERVICE PROGRAMS

More than 25 percent of the total number of programs surveyed (55) contain university-based community service efforts. These efforts represent attempts to apply the educational, research, analytical and advisory resources of higher education toward broadly improving the quality of life.

Of these 55 programs, 21 are specifically addressed to problems of the disadvantaged. Among these 21 programs, the specific purposes served include:

- **Assistance to the aged, including training of personnel to work on behalf of the elderly.**
- **Rehabilitation of the mentally and physically handicapped.**
- **Improving community life among Indian tribes.**
- **Legal services for the poor.**
- **Civil rights technical assistance and training.**
- **Child welfare training.**
- **Neighborhood health centers.**

Twelve community service programs focus on problems of the environment. Typical activities under these programs include:

- **Community education projects on environmental degradation and protection.**
- **Training in air pollution control.**
- **Training in solid waste disposal.**
- **Training in water pollution control.**

Another 12 community service programs are specifically concerned with crime and delinquency. Activities under these programs include:

- **Youth development and delinquency prevention.**
- **Training in suppression of illegal drug traffic.**
- **Police training through the FBI National Academy.**
- **University courses for criminal justice personnel.**

Five programs are designed to improve State and local government through activities such as:

- **Training grants to States to improve personnel serving in welfare assistance payments activities.**
- **Training of the disadvantaged for public service careers.**
- **Training of State and local government employees under the public employment program.**

Three of the community service programs are multipurpose, such as the Title I (HEA) program, and the remaining five are miscellaneous programs which fit none of the other classifications.

The community service programs are among those most vulnerable as efforts are made toward revenue sharing. If the revenue sharing concept gains further support, we can expect that the majority of these programs will be curtailed or will remain unfunded. If the decisions to curtail or eliminate are based on sound evaluations of the worth of these programs, the process of moving from categorical programs to more general forms of support can be a rational, orderly and defensible one. On the other hand, the record to date in evaluating social programs inspires little optimism or confidence.

IMPORTANCE OF EVALUATION

In the Council's 1972 Annual Report, we noted that "the widespread lack of effective evaluation is a factor of critical significance." *Without effective evaluation of continuing education programs, realistic program priorities cannot be established, program expenditures cannot be adequately compared to program achievements, improvements in the design or operation of programs cannot be based on sound empirical evidence and planning for the future cannot be predicated on a sound understanding of the successes and failures experienced by current programs.* We decided, therefore, to inquire more thoroughly into the subject of evaluation, as it relates to the kinds of programs with which our Council is functionally concerned.

GENERAL LACK OF EFFECTIVE EVALUATION

Although our inquiry was limited to programs of extension, continuing education and community service, it generally supports the assessment made by the Urban Institute in its broader study titled "Federal Evaluation Policy." Speaking about evaluation of federally supported social programs in general, that study arrived at hard-hitting conclusions:

> *The most impressive finding about the evaluation of social programs in the Federal Government is that substantial work in this field has been almost nonexistent.*
>
> *Few significant studies have been undertaken. Most of those carried out have been poorly conceived. Many small studies around the country have been carried out with such lack of uniformity of design and objective that the results rarely are comparable or responsive to the questions facing policymakers.*
>
> *There is nothing akin to a comprehensive Federal evaluation system. Even within agencies, orderly and integrated evaluation operations have not been established. Funding has been low. Staffing has been worse, forcing undue reliance on outside contractors by agencies that lack the in-house capacity to monitor contract work. The most clear-cut evidence of the primitive state of Federal self-evaluation lies in the widespread failure of agencies even to spell out program objectives. Unless goals are precisely stated, there is no standard against which to measure whether the direction of a program or its rate of progress is satisfactory.*
>
> *The impact of activities that cost the public millions, sometimes billions, of dollars has not been measured. One cannot point with confidence to the difference, if any, that most social programs cause in the lives of Americans. It has not been established that one approach has been more effective than another in reducing poverty, eliminating slums or providing quality education to all children. Why the same type of project seems to succeed in one community but fails in another has not been determined. Lack of a solid, scientific information base about past and present programs poses severe limitations on the federal government's ability to map out sound future programs.*

Rather than the systematic, scientifically designed research efforts needed to measure the impact of Federal funds and activities, much of what today passes as evaluation can be described and classified in the following terms:

1. *Self-serving declarations.* Federal administrators who disburse funds, and the States and educational institutions which receive them, routinely attempt to

make judgments about how successfully program purposes were served by these expenditures. Such self-evaluations have often proved useful and even influential in improving Federal programs. Given the best intentions and the highest motives, however, such evaluations necessarily lack objectivity. Neither a grantee nor a Federal official can be expected to identify and publicize the extent to which their personal or institutional short-comings lowered the level of eventual success. Administrators who need their jobs and grantees who need further funds are placed in the difficult position of maintaining their integrity as well as their personal financial base and professional future. As a result, the usefulness of self-evaluations is limited, even when self-evaluation is not congruent with self-deception.

2. *Testimonials from friends.* A typical ploy, often accepted as an evaluation, is the testimonial to success. When these testimonials originate with clients served by the program, they are often influential in shaping judgments about program success. Certainly, such testimonials when unsolicited and offered by knowledgeable people do provide a measure of insight about the product concerned; yet they cannot be a substitute for a planned, systematic evaluation. Client acceptance is a powerful factor in judging the worth of a program, but client reaction is only one of the elements which a thorough evaluation must take into account.

3. *The defensive evaluation.* Some programs suffer from a lack of internal support, congressional indifference or public hostility. The people who are the true believers in the program constantly find themselves on the defensive. Strongly committed to the virtues of the program they espouse, they devote much effort to identifying and relaying program successes. The slanted nature of such evaluations is sometimes justified by the program staff people concerned as necessary to counter the slanted nature of attacks on the program.

4. *The tell 'em what they want to hear evaluation.* Perhaps the worst abuse of the evaluation concept is the organized attempt to prove valid a viewpoint or prejudice firmly held at higher organizational levels. Once this is communicated to the working levels of the organization it becomes obvious that data or interpretations contrary to the firmly held view will be unpopular, as will be the person who identifies such data or presents such interpretations. To curry favor with the superior who has already apparently made up his mind, he is presented by his staff with the kinds of facts and analyses which will show him to have been right all along. Those who have played such a game energetically and have repeatedly proven their superior omniscient, can expect to bask in the favor of a boss who remembers their outstanding work.

5. *Evaluations by the intuitive administrator.* One of the prized skills of the outstanding administrator is an ability to perceive early what's right and what's wrong with his program. This skill is largely intuitive, because it is highly personal, and cannot readily be taught to others or even adequately described in scientific terms. Yet this judgmental skill undoubtedly exists, and the best among program administrators rely upon it in making adjustments in their programs, priorities and personnel. While such a honed intuition is undoubtedly a personal asset and leads many administrators to accurate judgments and decisions, it is at best an interim subsitute for decisions and judgments based upon accumulation of relevant facts, analyses and thorough research.

THE QUEST FOR REMEDIES

The limitations obvious in the evaluation styles described above have long been recognized and three major remedies have been attempted over the past decade: Creation of independent appraisal units, use of outside consultants and consulting firms, and PPBS, the planning-programing-budgeting system.

INDEPENDENT INTERNAL APPRAISAL UNITS

Many Federal departments have now established independent appraisal units located at various organizational levels ranging from the Office of the Secretary down to Bureau levels and below. The professional staffs of these units are independent to the extent that they are not directly involved in the administration of the programs and activities they evaluate, hence they better satisfy the requirements for objectivity essential to a sound evaluation.

For the most part, the evaluation techniques used are those developed by individual staff members and suited both to the amount of time available for evaluation and to the characteristics of the program being reviewed. Essentially, whatever the method or depth of study, the usual approach is to (1) ascertain the degree of effectiveness with which a given program is meeting its objectives, (2) assess the importance of these objectives in relation to the mission of the agency and the efforts expended on them, and (3) propose program improvements and changes in policy, procedure, funding, staffing, or priorities.

There is little doubt that establishment of independent appraisal units has improved the ability of Federal agencies to evaluate and improve their own activities. Yet the progress to date falls far short of the need. For example, in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, there is apparently no clear distinction between the functions of evaluation staffs at the Secretary's level and those working within the Office of Education. What is done by HEW staff members as compared to what is done by OE evaluators is largely a matter of ambiguity, chance and circumstance. No strategy of evaluation has been developed and no systematic plan for evaluation is in being. What is evaluated, for what purpose and in what depth typically depends either on what kind of a study is ordered by a management official or what kind of a study a particular staff member chooses to do.

In HEW, as in several other departments, there is no clear and precise relationship between the evaluation units and the budget staff. The evaluators might find that a particular program is not serving well its purposes: the budget people may recommend an increase in its funding. Similarly, a constant frustration of evaluation units is that in many cases action justified by the evaluation is never taken, so that necessary changes identified during the evaluation are never made. The program people often respond to such charges of inaction by saying that the evaluators simply did not know enough about the program to arrive at accurate conclusions; hence it would make no sense to implement their recommendations.

Despite these internal wrangles, where evaluation staffs have proven their competence and received the acceptance of top management, they have increasingly gained influence and impact on the operation of their agencies. They have operated as trouble-shooters for top management in reviewing problem-plagued programs, provided staff assistance to program administrators looking for better ways to administer their efforts, and served as an intelligence unit for their agencies reporting on what is right or wrong with operations over a broad span of program effort.

CONSULTANTS AND CONSULTING FIRMS

Most agencies simply lack the staff capacity to carry on in-depth evaluations of all the major programs already in being; they are short in numbers or in the specific talent required. In addition, for evaluations which would assess the performance of universities or of State and local governments, Federal agencies deliberately seek to use consulting firms and thereby avoid frictions which might result if Federal employees were directly reporting on the performance of universities, States, or local governments. Similarly, outside consultants, hired on a daily rate, are often used to augment permanent evaluation staffs for the duration of a given evaluation effort.

The growing use of consulting firms for evaluation studies has greatly added to Government's capacity to assess the impact of Federal programs. This is particularly true in relation to grant programs in which Federal administrators play mainly a fiscal role. In such cases, the consultants, in effect, provide oversight on behalf of the Federal Government over program activities supported in whole or in part by Federal funds. A complete reliance on outside evaluators has obvious disadvantages, but where a good internal evaluation capacity exists to monitor the work of outside consultants, the results have generally been productive.

PLANNING-PROGRAMING BUDGETING SYSTEM

Many useful management techniques have been oversold, but perhaps none as grossly as PPBS. Basically, PPBS is a useful approach which unites program planning with budgetary forecasts and focuses attention on the need to set program priorities and to relate program output to financial input. In one or another version of PPBS, the attempt is also made to evaluate programs in terms of those having the greatest output for any given cost level. Such an input-output matrix, central to many sound economic theories, is too crude and one-dimensional a measure of program value. Some social problems may absolutely have to be dealt with, regardless of the economic efficiency with which they can be mitigated. Other social programs might have a laudable input-output ratio, but the problems which they address may be low on the scale of priorities and social needs. While it is artificially possible to place an economic value on a human life, who can validly say whether a State is justified in eliminating a dangerous road intersection at an expenditure of $5 million in order to save five lives over the next five years.

In short, the PPBS input-output measures, while useful in circumstances where the output can reasonably be quantified, cannot validly place dollar signs on every kind of educational or social output. Hence for many of the kinds of programs within this Council's functional concern, the straightforward PPBS approach has little absolute validity.

At the same time, the Civil Service Commission has developed an interesting input-output model designed to ascertain how the benefits of training and continuing education for Federal employees relate to expenditures. Because this model is realistically geared to outputs which can be quantified (e.g. increase in typing speed after further training) and does not presume the capacity to quantify outputs which have no precise measures, it appears to avoid the pitfalls of the PPBS approach.

Over the past several years, an increasing disenchantment with PPBS has been evident within the Federal Government. The present concensus appears to be that it is a technique of considerable value, provided it is not used indiscriminately and presumed valid in situations where only artificial or highly subjective output measures can be developed.

EVALUATION: A SUMMARY

Lack of sufficient systematic evaluation of programs of extension, continuing education and community service is part of a broader lack of evaluation in social programs generally. However, partly under the spur of congressional criticism, agencies are moving toward development of internal, independent evaluation units, and increasing their capacity to make good use of outside consultants in evaluation studies. Still lacking is a broad Federal strategy of evaluation needed to supplant reliance on the PPBS approach which works well only when program outputs can realistically be quantified. In addition, more research is needed to develop evaluation models specifically geared to extension and continuing education programs, perhaps along lines of the Civil Service Commission's efforts.

The heavy fiscal outlays for programs of extension, continuing education and community service warrant substantial effort to assure that these programs are administered in the most effective ways possible, that the better programs are retained, and that those of marginal value are reduced in scale, revised or eliminated.

The situation as it now exists—scattered narrow programs, fragmented responsibilities, and great annual funding uncertainty—needs drastic revision. The major question is whether such revision will be based on a sound evaluation of current program strengths and weaknesses, or whether changes will be forced through sheer frustration rather than guided by a knowledge of what has led to success and to failure. □

AN UNEASY COEXISTENCE: THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AND HIGHER CONTINUING EDUCATION

During the past year, this Council has investigated the ways and the extent to which continuing education was being affected by Federal moneys, Federal programs, and Federal priorities and guidelines.

FEDERAL FUND DISPERSAL

The Federal government has not provided funds to universities in ways which would be most helpful to them. The annual uncertainty of funding; the heavy emphasis on projects of short duration, lacking clear sequels; the broad dispersion of Federal funds within university structures already suffering from fragmentation, all point to this conclusion. Rather than serving to consolidate, strengthen, and focus university continuing education resources, the effect more often has been to produce internal competition for funds and programs and to disperse activity so broadly that a concerted universitywide continuing education effort became administratively difficult if not practically impossible.

Federal activity in extension, continuing education and community service is an integral part of a major effort to improve the conditions of our society through direct intervention by government. Despite the importance of the university's role in this effort, it is apparent that the Federal Government has not yet learned to use the university's general extension network with the same effectiveness that it has used the university's cooperative extension network.

In the case of the cooperative extension network, permanent legislation exists which assures its support and funding, establishes its identity and defines the extent of its activity. But in the case of general extension, its role remains largely undefined, its financial base is essentially insecure and tenuous, and its existence is largely ignored by Federal program administrators. With the exception of Title I (HEA), direct Federal support for general extension is virtually nonexistent.

EXTENSION MECHANISM BYPASSED

Federal agencies with Federal dollars have consistently bypassed the extension mechanism. Universities themselves have largely been responsible for this. The decision to deploy specific university resources to implement specific Federal programs is generally an internal one, with these programs ultimately being "housed" wherever the *relevant professional expertise* is most readily available.

This expertise is not typically found in the formal extension mechanism of the university but in the university's professional schools and academic departments, to which the extension mechanism may have only indirect or insufficient access. These schools and departments have often found it profitable to become directly engaged in continuing education, and since they control faculty, they have been able to operate programs of continuing education without the involvement of the existing general extension mechanisms.

Federal funds, consequently, help reinforce the already rigid departmental structure of universities. This reinforcement is the result of little forethought about the effects such funds will have on the administrative structure of the university as a whole. To the extent that federally funded programs may have extension and continuing education components attached to them, Federal funds also serve to replicate within the departmental structure, although on a much narrower basis, the very extension mechanism that the

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university has formally established independently of that structure.

In the past, most university officials were content to leave the continuing education mechanism alone. So long as the university incurred no major financial or manpower obligations as a result of these activities, the mechanism was free to fend for itself and to engage in a variety of discrete and unrelated projects that were designed largely to keep the mechanism afloat financially, and to provide also a comfortable extra income for the university. If these activities provided valuable service to people and communities—as they often did—so much the better. But services which were needed but could not pay their own way were often ruled out.

These conditions prevailed at most universities for decades. As a consequence, the continuing education needs of large segments of the adult population went largely unheeded. What universities alone had the capacity to do was far greater than what they did.

The major reason why these conditions no longer dominate continuing education can be attributed directly to the interest the Federal Government has demonstrated in resolving domestic crises and issues of social concern. Federal legislation, involving literally billions of dollars, focused the priorities of virtually all the executive agencies on such areas as drug abuse, law enforcement, housing and transportation, quality teaching, medical and health-related services, environmental protection and a host of other issues.

The programs that were generated by this legislation often involved continuing education for professionals, paraprofessionals, inner-city workers and the inadequately educated. Academic departments and colleges, and such specialized facilities as university-based urban centers, institutes of criminal justice, and labor-relations centers, were all attracted to these programs and to the funds attached to them.

As a result, academic units of the university responded to Federal initiative by utilizing their own professional resources and creating new agencies that moved into the field of continuing education. These units could use their professional expertise and could directly guarantee to the Federal agencies what the continuing education network could only indirectly promise: a ready access to the expertise needed to help resolve these many social problems.

EXTENSION DUPLICATION

Miniextension networks were established throughout many universities. These networks often duplicated the general extension network; they competed with it; they may even have helped to undermine it. Many senior university officials made little effort to control this replication and fragmentation. Rather than support the university's extension network, and insist that all extension and continuing education activities be channeled through it, these officials allowed virtually every academic unit a license to foray into continuing education at will.

To assess, therefore, the direct and positive Federal impact on the university's formal continuing education and extension mechanism is easy; it has been minimal. To assess instead the Federal impact on university-based extension and continuing education activities, however, is another matter entirely. It moves us from the question of the administrative structure of the extension network to a question of university-wide activities and the effects Federal programs have had on higher education in general.

PART-TIME STUDENTS

Part-time students, who represent the major clientele serviced by continuing education, have not been beneficiaries of Federal financial aid programs. Whatever assistance part-time students have received has come almost exclusively from executive agency programs that are intended to accomplish a specific task and for which specific talent is needed. Much of this talent, our studies show, involves the retraining of individuals on a part-time basis.

The Office of Education's Center for Educational Statistics reports that in the fall of 1970, universities had enrolled nearly 2.5 million part-time students for degree credit. There is no comparable figure for students enrolled for noncredit and nondegree courses, but surely that figure must reach high into the millions also.

Neither the Office of Education nor any other Federal agency has a single student assistance program to aid these part-time students exclusively. Until the recent enactment of the Education Amendments Act of 1972, the best description of Federal aid to part-time students—to the extent such aid existed—is that these programs did not specifically *exclude* part-time students.

One reason why the part-time students suffer from neglect is that Congress has never perceived legislation in terms relevant to extension and continuing education, nor has the Congress ever instructed the executive agencies to administer the resulting programs as

such. When neither the Congress nor the agencies stamp legislation and programs as extension and continuing education, it can be expected that universities in turn will operate under the same assumption.

FEDERAL NON-POLICY

In the absence of some pivotal legislation, a vacuum remains which encourages both Federal agencies and universities to administer continuing education programs with a minimum of central guidance, planning, and coordination. In effect, these programs become everybody's fragmented responsibility or, obversely, nobody's central responsibility, and what is left to prevail is a Federal policy of not having a policy for higher continuing education.

The failure to establish such policies and guidelines for higher continuing education may stem in part from the simple lack of direct and routine contact between bureaucrats and continuing education resources. It is our observation that most continuing education administrators are not as actively engaged as their colleagues from the departmental faculties in seeking grants from Federal agencies. They are not always aware of Federal programs that may be of assistance to them, nor are they always alert to their eligibility as fund seekers.

One obstacle is the curious position in which continuing educators find themselves *vis-à-vis* the Federal Government. Unlike other administrative units of the university, continuing education has no visible opposite within the bureaucracy. Medical schools and related health facilities can apply to HEW or NIH for support, as may the law schools to the Department of Justice. Teacher training programs can seek help from the Office of Education's Bureau of Educational Personnel Development; graduate and undergraduate science programs from the National Science Foundation; environmental programs, urban institutes and traffic safety institutes from similar mission-oriented Federal agencies.

NO FEDERAL COUNTERPART

University continuing education activities are denied, therefore, what virtually every other university activity has access to: a responsive Federal focus for their own interests.

The fact that continuing education *per se* has been given so litle visibility within the Federal Government reflects at least one real dilemma of continuing education as it exists outside the Federal Government: the low esteem that in the past has generally been accorded continuing education by university administrators. Many universities publicly acclaim the virtues of lifelong learning and the need to provide more and better educational opportunities for the general public; but these same public declarations rarely survive the internal scrutinies of annual budget sessions and the fiscal pruning that all programs must face.

FISCAL INDEPENDENCE

With inadequate support from the general university budget, and with minimal direct and long-term input from Federal, State, and other grant programs, continuing educatio *per se* has gone of necessity to the marketplace to sell its wares like many commercial enterprises on a profit and loss basis. As a result, continuing education has historically been largely self-sufficient fiscally and has required entrepreneurial initiative in order to survive. It has responded to consumer demands by rallying whatever university resources it could to provide consumer-oriented products.

Unfortunately, it may be that this history of fiscal self-sufficiency and entrepreneurship has served as a strong argument against channeling either university or Federal funds to continuing education. Having proved that they can survive with minimal institutional support and their own entrepreneurial ingenuity, continuing educators are not given a secure budget base, but are instead granted the freedom to scurry about doing those things which will help pay their keep.

When the need for a balanced budget is the primary consideration, conducting programs which are most apt to bring in revenue is certainly a rational approach. But in matters of imaginative programing and providing essential services to a clientele whose personal financial resources are inadequate to pay for these services, this need to do only the things which best produce revenue has obvious limitations.

CATEGORICAL LEGISLATION

Virtually all of the Federal programs that have extension and continuing education and community service components have been generated by categorical legislation. These categories vary—drug abuse, mental health, traffic safety, environmental pollution, and a host of others.

Through categorical legislation, the Federal Government has actively sought the help of universities in al-

leviating many specific societal problems. In the main, universities have responded positively. But the fact is that universities are not well-structured to carryout the objectives of these Federal programs. Their structure typically reflects the centrality assigned to the oncampus teaching mission. This structure is not always well suited to providing community services or responding to new or unusual demands.

The issues and problems with which universities are asked to deal are complex. Drug abuse is related to crime in the streets. Crime may be related to urban decay. Urban decay cannot be relieved without addressing the problems of pollution. Each issue is related not to a single issue but to many issues; and unless one categorical program can be effectively related to other categorical programs, optimal results cannot be achieved.

The complexity and interrelatedness of these issues require multi- and interdisciplinary approaches to them. Within the university context, the general extension network is best equipped by experience to use this approach successfully. However, with the advent of categorical programs, pressures have been generated within the university to respond to narrow program purposes through narrow organizational units, or through units having a single, specialized purpose, even though that purpose is better served by a multidisciplinary approach.

CENTERS AND INSTITUTES

A recent survey,[1] for instance, lists over 5,000 specialized centers and institutes which have been developed under university sponsorship. Many of these centers are simply bloated departments, but their general characteristic appears to be that they are developed around two or more disciplines. These centers often exist at the periphery of the university and are intended to carryout work which is considered not central to the university.

Unlike the academic departments, these centers and institutes are task-oriented. Many of them, like the Water Research Centers that exist at many universities throughout the country, are funded directly by Federal legislation. In this case, specific Federal guidelines instructed that the centers be set up outside the departmental structure, thus confirming in one instance what many university administrators believe prevails in most: that Federal agencies prefer high structural visibility in response to Federal program needs.

Virtually all of the 5,000 centers have Federal support. Indeed, many of the centers were established by the universities on the assumption that they would succeed in attracting Federal support at some later date. Nearly a fifth of these centers have been established on the campuses of 51 land-grant universities. One large land-grant university in the southwest, where there also happens to exist one of the nation's outstanding continuing education facilities, has 44 such centers.

STRUCTURAL RESPONSE

In this light, then, Federal impact on university structure appears to have had two main thrusts. First, through categorical legislation and through the project grant mechanism, the Federal Government has tended to build selectively and increase the insularity of the university's departmental structure. And second, because many Federal community-oriented programs require multi- and interdisciplinary efforts that cannot alone be provided by single departments, the Federal Government has helped to establish another layer of units—institutes and centers—which range from highly specialized single-purpose departments to superdepartments or multidepartments.

Given the fact that considerable university authority resides within departments, and now within this supradepartmental structure, one other effect of Federal activity is to further decentralize university decision-making powers and to help make any policy and planning decisions on behalf of the *entire* university that much more difficult.

FACILITIES AND EQUIPMENT

Visibly evident at the universities are the physical results of a number of Federal brick-and-mortar programs. Research centers, dormitory residences, laboratories, and other academic facilities stand as testimony to the Government's willingness to put its money where its interests are. Most of these elaborate facilities resulted initially from simple training grants.

For example, the National Defense Education Act was essentially an effort to strengthen the nation by increasing the supply of university-trained personnel As this program grew in sophistication, it became evident that the provision of fellowships was simply not enough to achieve this objective. These fellowships, consequently, were soon accompanied by equipment

[1] Ikenberry, Stanley O. and Friedman, Renee C., *Beyond Academic Departments* (Jossey-Bass, 1972).

grants to implement doctoral-level training, particularly in the natural sciences. In turn, these equipment grants were soon accompanied by facilities grants, one of whose purposes was to house the equipment already being supplied.

General extension has rarely benefited from a similar chain of circumstances. *To this day, only two universities have received facilities grants from the Federal Government to house general extension activities.* This apparently results because: (1) Money for facilities available through HUD and HEW, by university preference, is used for purposes other than extension; and (2) facilities money has gone to specialized centers and institutes rather than to general extension, because these centers and institutes are more often directly involved in Federal program activities.

NEW STATE COMMISSIONS

Of special recent significance is the potential establishment of State Post-Secondary Education Commissions as required by section 1202 of the Educational Amendments of 1972.[2] These commissions, when established, will have planning responsibility for statewide post-secondary education. This, we assume, will include continuing education activities. They will have a membership which is "broadly and equitably representative of the general public" and will include not only traditional educational institutions but, for the first time, proprietary schools as well.

If they desire, States may designate these commissions to serve as the State agency required under Titles I, VI, and VII, of the Higher Education Act of 1965 as amended. If the States select this option, the section 1202 State commissions may bring about better coordination of these three State grant programs. It is the intent of the legislation that unnecessary duplication be eliminated.

At this point, it is still too early to assess the impact of this new requirement. Prospectively, however, it may be one of the most important of many Federal actions which affect higher education.

If the Federal Government implements special revenue sharing during this time of declining enrollments, the provision of direct aid for needy students and the loss of nonresident higher tuitions, the continuing education effort faces the prospect of reverting to its historic place at the end of the priority scale. Just at the time when the demand for continuing education is reaching a new peak, the demand for dollars by its traditional adversaries also reaches a new peak. Under revenue sharing it appears likely that continuing education would be pressed back to the periphery of academic concern instead of sustaining its present momentum toward becoming a central function of higher education.

NEED FOR POLICY

The presence of the Federal Government in higher continuing education is massive and pervasive. It is clear that this presence will continue, and therefore it seems appropriate to seek ways to strengthen and improve that presence for the longrun. This will require development of Federal policy and practice which recognizes:

- **That the resources of universities in extension, continuing education and community service are extremely important to most major social programs and social objectives of the Federal Government; therefore these resources should be strengthened as well as used.**
- **That universities need both Federal dollars and opportunities for involvement in major Federal social programs; through programs of extension, continuing education, and community service, they get both simultaneously.**
- **That universities themselves need more carefully to define their continuing education and public service missions and decide on the structure through which their resources are to be committed.**
- **That narrow Federal programs evoke narrow responses from universities; they encourage the growth and use of the miniextension mechanisms of centers, institutes, and academic departments.**
- **That as the emphasis on narrow categorical programs lessens in favor of broader purpose or multipurpose programs, the general extension network is likely to benefit at the expense of miniextension, because general extension is better equipped to deal with breadth and scope.**
- **That whether Federal dollars support general extension or miniextension, new and better ways of funding extension, continuing education and community service need to be found—ways which have the virtues of predictability, stability, and administrative effectiveness.** □

[2] As this report was being prepared for the printer, the Office of Education announced that the implementation of these commissions was being "indefinitely postponed".

CONTINUING EDUCATION TODAY

In the Council's Sixth Annual Report of last year, we identified and evaluated at some length, and for the first time, the magnitude and characteristics of the Federal involvement in higher continuing education. To complement this analysis, a significant part of the Seventh Annual Report is devoted to, first, some of the effects of that involvement upon higher continuing education activities throughout the country; and, second, a review of recent developments in continuing education apart from any effects Federal legislation may have had on these developments.

The preceding chapter, "An Uneasy Coexistence," is the result of our efforts to fulfill the first objective. In this chapter, we will discuss what we see to be some of the major issues of the current status of continuing education. We base this discussion on extensive staff visits to over 50 campuses, two-thirds of which were State universities and colleges, including junior colleges, and the remainder private institutions. We estimate that interviews were held with over 130 individuals, with particular emphasis on interviews with deans and directors of continuing education and/or extension service and their staffs.

ACADEMIC REVOLUTION?

There is consensus that the status of continuing education has changed demonstrably and for the better within the last few years. There are simply more people than ever before, and there are more things to be learned by these people than ever before. This is a simple factual statement, but it nonetheless helps to explain, in the broadest possible way, what is happening to higher continuing education today. These coincidental explosions of both population and knowledge have had a wide effect upon universities in general, but especially on continuing education resources. There are a growing number of observers of the American education system who are even willing to describe this effect as "revolutionary."

If indeed there is a revolution taking place, and if the continuing education facilities of the universities are vitally involved in it, there is not always a uniform opinion about who is leading the revolution and whether or not it has any central ideology, objective, or plan of action. One issue, however, is generally agreed to: the source of unrest within American education is the intolerably rigid structure of the system itself and what seems to be the reluctance of many educators to make the kinds of changes in it that will help maintain the system as an effective instrument of society.

The central objective of this system has been the earning of a degree, and elsewhere in this report we examine one experiment with degrees—the external degree. The earning of a degree has been the traditional sign of educational success and has generally been accompanied by other emblems of educational apprenticeship: residency requirements, academic semesters, disciplines, courses, examinations, and credits—especially credits. *This strong insistence on the place of education, the timing of education and the method of education has subsequently led to the accusation that this kind of educational system represents "a triumph of technique over purpose."*

Much of the current interest in continuing education stems largely from the fact that experienced continuing educators have come to regard these requirements as arbitrary and as unnecessary obstacles to learning experiences that are otherwise valid. As a result of this challenge to the conventional approach to education, continuing education has often stood alone in providing individuals with an acceptable alternative to traditional residential education. In questioning the very foundations of what constitutes an education, continuing education, therefore, poses a direct threat to the higher education establishment.

THE NEW STUDENT

These conceptual differences have taken on more urgent meaning in recent years because of the dramatic increase of demands being made upon universities for continuing education by individuals who traditionally have had only limited access to educational opportunities. Adults of all ages are approaching educational institutions in unheard of numbers and for a variety of very specific services. These adults fall into two major categories: those who have already received considerable formal education and who need further education to enhance or change their careers; and those who have had only limited education but who now recognize the need for additional education to seek a career in a chosen field.

Continuing educators have long recognized the existence of the needs of this clientele. These educators have struggled, oftentimes alone, to gain universitywide recognition of them, and have been among the most outspoken critics of rigidities, enshrined as tradition, which effectively serve to deny their clients a proper education or proper recognition of their educational attainments.

Because of the sheer size in numbers of these adult learners, and because of the potential they suggest of a market that has seldom been adequately tapped, they give new substance to the old arguments so frequently voiced by continuing educators regarding the place, timing and method of the educational process.

These adult learners defy categorization. Their other responsibilities already require extensive commitments of their time, their availability, their location. They simply cannot be relocated to a particular place for prolonged periods of time. *As a consequence, if universities are to accommodate these new students—and there are mounting fiscal and other pressures urging that they do accommodate them—they must review their commitments to continuing education and reexamine what has already been done successfully to meet the needs of these students.*

UNIVERSITY-WIDE INTEREST

This is indeed what appears to have happened. Interest in continuing education has become universitywide. Continuing education activities of the universities are no longer confined to the formal continuing education mechanism, controlled by the deans of continuing education, but have spilled over into virtually every academic college and department. Even today, general institutional support, including fellowships and counseling and other services, is channeled almost exclusively to full-time students.

It is apparent that continuing education has ceased to be distasteful to many segments of the academic faculty. More and more universities are willing to grant recognition to work done in continuing education and to reimburse, promote, and provide tenure for faculty accordingly. Indeed, more and more universities are encouraging—some few are even insisting—that broader public service through continuing education become a major concern of its faculty.

This heightened interest and public courting of continuing education are flattering and welcome. But they are not without their dangers. So actively and swiftly have many institutions become involved in providing continuing education services to the public that they have systematically bypassed the formal extension network of the universities as a central means of coordinating their continuing education activities, and have allowed virtually any college or department of the university to design and promote continuing education programs. As a consequence, some institutions are no longer capable of enumerating the exact extent of their continuing education activities.

MINI-EXTENSION

As the extension/continuing education mechanism was being bypassed in many institutions, miniextension networks grew up alongside it, often duplicating its services, competing with it for funding and clientele, undertaking costly and unnecessary replication of programs and, in the end, often undermining the mechanism as the central focus of universitywide extension activities.

These developments are occurring without the benefit of the planning and coordination that deans of continuing education might ordinarily be expected to provide. Only at a handful of pace-setting institutions are there strictly enforced regulations that demand that all university extension and continuing education be channeled and coordinated through the formal extension mechanism.

Much of this fragmentation has been abetted by the demands of Federal continuing education programs and by the lure of Federal money. Federal administrators concerned with the continuing education of teachers, for instance, might typically approach the dean of the school of education, or be approached by

him, rather than the dean of extension. This same tendency holds true in most other fields and disciplines.

The sociology department quickly learns that by establishing an urban institute or an institute of criminal justice, it can establish direct access to Federal continuing education moneys. Consequently, the departmental chairman has little built-in incentive to involve the dean of continuing education in this process and is often disinclined to collaborate with him in getting programs underway.

This fragmentation may result from another source as well: the decentralization of most decisionmaking powers at the universities. Chancellors, presidents, provosts, deans, departmental chairmen, research directors, faculty, students, and alumni may all claim and exercise some authority over university activities. This decentralization has made it extremely difficult for universities to define their central missions and utilize their resources accordingly, particularly in the allocation of resources—both manpower and financial—for programs designed for nontraditional students.

The special manpower needs of extension have been a crucial factor in how extension has evolved structurally within the university. Similarly its unique financial situation has greatly affected how most extension agencies have been forced to view their relationship with the individuals and communities they serve.

FISCAL NEEDS

Because continuing education has traditionally received little or no direct support from the university budget to carry out its responsibilities, it has had to depend heavily on locating other sources of income. This need to locate immediate income has often pressured continuing educators to design educational products that would attract the surest or the largest number of consumers. *Products are designed, consequently, largely for those who can afford them and not, as should be the case, for those who need them and who in all likelihood can least afford to pay for them.*

Without this base of financial support, continuing education is hard-pressed to undertake the planning that is necessary to articulate long-term objectives and to design programs and curricula for more than a short-term duration. It is hampered in its search for professional manpower to implement these programs and is not always able to expand its administrative staff at a rate that is comparable to the accelerating interest in the field.

MANPOWER NEEDS

In one very imporant dimension, however, responses to the manpower needs of continuing education have undergone a dramatic transformation. It is true that the field remains heavily dependent upon the good will and discretionary powers of university deans and departmental chairmen for staffing. *But the leveling of student enrollments within most universities, and the surplus of teachers in the subject-matter disciplines, have helped to release to continuing education a manpower potential to which in the past it had only limited access.* These professionals are rapidly becoming available to continuing education in the numbers needed and with an enthusiasm that is welcome. In effect, continuing educators no longer have to accept what manpower is arbitrarily made available to them, but can now select and approve from among those qualified individuals who have expressed interest in working in the field.

The expansion of this instructional base, and the commitments to continuing education that have been generated throughout the university, have led to an increased visibility of those who are administratively responsible for continuing education. It is no longer uncommon to hear of such formerly rare individuals as vice presidents for continuing education or vice chancellors for public service. Even when there exists only a modest extension network at an institution, it is now to be expected that those who are responsible for extension activities respond directly to the institution's senior academic officer and not, as was once the case, to the institution's senior or midlevel administrative officer. These internal practices help to associate continuing education programs with all other undergraduate, graduate, and professional programs, and help to win for them the academic consideration and prestige that in the past has frequently been denied them.

There is little doubt that many universities are establishing broad and permanent commitments to continuing education. What remains somewhat in doubt is their long-term commitments to the manpower needs of the extension mechanism itself. There is no assurance that the present availability of manpower will continue on anything other than its present short-term and ad hoc basis. And even if some way is found to maintain this resource base over a long period, that breakthrough alone would resolve only one of two essential manpower needs.

CONTINUING EDUCATION SPECIALISTS

Continuing education does not have a large enough core of continuing education specialists—individuals who have been trained in continuing education, who identify their career interests with it and who, in effect, can direct the extension mechanism and provide some guarantee that it will actually offer the public effective service.

The vast majority of those who provide instructional services through the mechanism have, in all likelihood, only minimal commitment to it. As welcome as their services are, the presence of so many individuals who may be unaware of the purposes of the mechanism, and who may use it only as a supplement to their other professional interest, may pose a long-range hazard.

The structural integrity of the extension mechanism has already been compromised through the creation of competing miniextension networks. It may be further compromised by the existence of engineering extension services or medical extension services that may have even broader institutional bases and which may compete for a complex array of university resources.

Perhaps no activity has had deeper impact on general extension than cooperative extension. The coexistence of these two activities, and the occasionally bitter competition that has occurred between them, have been decisive in many instances in regulating how general extension has evolved as a structure and how its tasks have been defined.

There is little misunderstanding about what cooperative extension does, about whom it serves, how it is funded, where it is. With guaranteed financial support from Federal, State, and local government sources, cooperative extension seeks to apply the research of the land-grant universities to a resolution of problems confronting rural families and communities. There is, however, a great deal of misunderstanding about what general extension is, what it does and whom it serves. One expedient is to define general extension by including every activity and every person who does not fall within the purview of cooperative extension.

This is an unsatisfactory expedient by anybody's measurement, but it does help to use the first issue of definition to focus on the second issue of identification. *Because general extension has fallen short at times in defining what its primary mission is and who its special clientele is—two things that cooperative extension does with ease—the general extension structure has often been awkwardly or inadequately related to the rest of the university.*

STRUCTURAL MODELS

The search for structural models for general extension activities is one of the most formidable and lively areas of experimentation. Some universities have joined the cooperative and general extension networks into one administrative unit; other universities are determined to administer the two separately. A few universities have actually succeeded in channeling all university-based extension activities through a single unit, while many others, as our report makes clear, give minimal support to their extension mechanism and allow replication of it to appear in any college or department that is interested in continuing education.

Because there is an expectedly high concentration of public service and continuing education programs at State and land-grant institutions, the State laws that fund and regulate statewide educational activities help outline sharply what it is these institutions do with their extension mechanisms. Some States, consequently, have statewide systems of extension services. If these same States have regional campuses for the State university, then extension will be active on a regional basis. If these States have a complex network of 2-year junior and community colleges, then it can be expected that these colleges will be found sponsoring substantial continuing education programs at the local level.

JUNIOR COLLEGES

The activity of two-year institutions at the local level is of prime significance to continuing education. First, because these institutions themselves provide a major new institutional base for extension activity; and second, to the extent that these institutions are active in urban areas, where the needs for extension services are most pronounced, their presence lends timely credibility to a solid university-based commitment to the amelioration of urban and community problems. Two-year institutions have demonstrated a strong commitment to providing public service through extension and continuing education. These institutions, however, have not always been successful in establishing effective relationships with the four-year colleges and universities where there are legal, medical, and other professional resources available that cannot be found at the two-year institutions.

Until better and more effective consortia-type arrangements can be established, either among institutions within a statewide educational system, or separately between two independent institutions, the

deployment of services to individuals and communities at the local level will be slowed and their impact lessened.

Literally hundreds of institutions of higher education have experimented with interinstitutional arrangements, but at only a few of these institutions has continuing education for public service been a central objective. What activities are currently underway in support of this objective have generally been restricted to State institutions.

CREDIT TRANSFER

The failure to maximize whatever opportunities are suggested by interinstitutional arrangements may largely be attributed to one problem that has beset continuing educators for decades: the recognition and accreditation of continuing education activities, not only between institutions but—incomprehensibly—*within* institutions. Credit earned at one university through continuing education is often not transferrable to another university, and credit earned within the university through continuing education is very frequently not transferrable from one academic department or professional school to the next.

Considering the high mobility and other special circumstances that are characteristic of the continuing education clientele, these arbitrary and cumbersome regulations often effectively dissuade an otherwise serious student from continuing his education further, and may even render useless the work he has already accomplished.

There are some signs suggesting that the inequities of this practice are being successfully challenged. Perhaps the most important development in recent years has been the proposal that has been adopted by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools to create a continuing education unit (CEU). This unit has been adopted as a standard of measurement to recognize noncredit work completed at all institutions that are members of the association. Moreover, each institution will be required to establish an administrative unit to monitor all credit and noncredit work at the institution, and thus provide an assurance that within the institution and within the Southern region, all continuing education activities will be duly recognized, accredited and transferable. *This Council views these developments as highly significant and wishes to commend the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools for its implementation of the continuing education unit.*

The fact that these decisions affect institutions in their entirety, and are not restricted solely to their continuing education facilities, is highly significant. It means, in effect, that the often-times superficial distinctions and regulations that have applied in the past to continuing education activities are being thrown out and are being replaced by a single stamp of accreditation and by a single judgment regarding their quality.

EXTENSION QUALITY

In the past, the quality of many continuing education programs has been persistently questioned—legitimately in many cases—but most predictably by academic deans and departmental chairmen who were understandably reluctant to lessen their control over the central teaching responsibilities of the university.

Now, however, as greater numbers of deans and department heads sponsor their own continuing education programs, it becomes increasingly difficult for them to insist on distinguishing artificially between the quality of the services that they provide on a regular basis to full-time students and the services they provide on a regular basis to part-time students. Each department is expected to have one uniform standard of quality performance, not two. The illogic of continuing to insist on a double standard that should apply only to programs servicing part-time students through the formal continuing education mechanism has finally become, if not apparent, certainly less justifiable.

Continuing education, from whatever source, is only as good as the individuals providing it, the students learning it and the institutions sponsoring it. There is little evidence one way or the other that proves decisively that the academic performance of a part-time student is significantly different from the academic performance of a full-time student. And there is less and less sense in trying to distinguish between those who teach full-time students and those who teach part-time students: one reason why continuing education has experienced so much dramatic change recently is due to the increased sharing of faculty by the extension mechanism and the academic departments.

A growing number of institutions now recognize continuing education as a major objective. It is not a matter of individual or public interest, but of self-interest, that these institutions learn to use the extension mechanism more rationally than they have. In many cases, this may include coordinating the universitywide continuing education activities of the institution through the extension mechanism, and, in turn,

providing that mechanism with complete access to the full resources of the university.

The maintenance of high academic standards for continuing education ultimately rests with the deans of continuing education and their staffs. It is their responsibility to recruit and retain an adequate faculty, to design and implement new and innovative programs, and to use judiciously the resources and prestige of the university. It is they who in the end must guarantee full and equal university services to a clientele that has not always received these services fully and equally.

The assurance of quality would also mean reexamining the present practice of creating miniextension networks and coordinating those miniextension networks that already exist. It would mean a more substantial allocation of university fiscal and manpower resources, of physical facilities, counseling, library, athletic, and laboratory services to be used by the extension mechanism for part-time students. It would mean making more long-term commitments to continuing education so that programs can be designed in response to the demonstrated needs of individuals and not in response to whatever programs generate income. It would mean a recognition—through salary, promotion, and tenure—of the services rendered by extension staff on a level that is equal to that given to those engaged in full-time teaching and reasearch. □

THE EXTERNAL DEGREE

Perhaps no aspect of the current academic tumult has received more expressions of interest than the external degree. So widespread has this interest been, and so much of it tentative and ambiguous, that a movement has developed which is essentially leaderless. For each State or institution that has undertaken concrete steps to implement its interest in the external degree, there may be dozens of others whose interests have not progressed beyond the proposal stage.

ANTECEDENTS

It is too early to draw any meaningful conclusions about what will happen to the external degree, although it is often forgotten that the external degree in Great Britain is now a century old and in this country several decades old. The recognition of merit, of competence, of demonstrated learning through validation and certification, either through regular, special, or external degrees, or through some other means, has a long and instructive history.

High school equivalency, advanced placement or the simple skipping of grades at the elementary and secondary levels are common in the American educational system. It would be simplistic to call the external degree a logical development of these, but they and the external degree are, nonetheless, examples of the need to override the oftentimes encrusted regulations and internal bylaws of the academic system.

Many look upon the external degree as a positive step to enlarge educational opportunities for an expanding population—to make higher education still more egalitarian, more accessible and inexpensive, more innovative. Others see the degree as an indictment of an educational system's failure to respond seriously to the needs and demands of the adult population.

Both views have some validity to them. The external degree does provide a promise to extend education to a market that has never been satisfactorily probed. Early indications suggest that individuals who avail themselves of external degree programs are not the same individuals who would ordinarily avail themselves of the more traditional residential programs of universities.

CONTINUING EDUCATION MECHANISM

As a matter of fact, *these are not individuals whose needs can necessarily be met through the continuing education mechanism.* This mechanism too, though celebrated for its flexibility and openness, has its own traditions and internal practices that inhibit it from doing many of the things that ought to be done. It usually lacks a permanent faculty or consistent access to faculty resources and has often been unable to develop a curriculum for anything other than a short-term objective.

When universities are willing to provide credits for continuing education programs, these same universities can provide no guarantee that all of these credits are transferable to another university. Indeed, in many instances, *continuing education credits may not be transferable within various academic units of the same university.*

COUNTER PRINCIPLES

The external degree is based on a number of counterprinciples of education that set it apart clearly from the internal degrees that are offered for the traditional two- and four-year residential programs of universities, and apart also from most continuing education programs.

- ***Clientele.*—Virtually any adult who is motivated to get a degree and who is able to demonstrate what he has already learned and what he is capable of learning;**

- *Faculty.*—**In some cases, there may not be any, with full responsibility falling upon the student to design and undertake his own educational program; in other cases, an individual or group may work closely with an assigned advisor only, or with faculty composed of both permanent teachers and of individuals whose only credentials are that they themselves have demonstrated a competence in the subject to be taught;**
- *Place.*—**It may be anywhere, at home, on the job, a learning center, a university;**
- *Time.*—**It can occur anytime, with the admission and completion date left to the discretion of the individual who will be allowed to pace himself at whatever speed he is best capable of learning;**
- *Curriculum.*—**A student may learn from whatever source available, so long as he is willing to submit his knowledge for examining, testing, and evaluation.**

Because of the radical nature of many of these counterprinciples, it is not surprising that the larger, more traditional universities have been relatively inactive in implementing external degrees. Newer structures have had to be developed instead and other institutions have had to be restructured. The New York State Board of Regents, through the University of the State of New York, has empowered itself to grant degrees and does so through the regents external degree. The regents of the State of Ohio have recognized a consortia of institutions in Ohio and elsewhere called the Union of Experimenting Colleges and Universities to award an external degree through its University Without Walls.

In addition, New Jersey's Board of Education has established the new Alva A. Edison College to administer that State's external degree program. Other innovative institutions like Florida International University, the Minnesota Metropolitan State College, the entire California State system and New York's Empire State College have undertaken external degree programs.

TWO TYPES OF DEGREES

Basically, there are two types of external degrees: Degress granted by examination, and degrees granted by teaching. All of these new institutions, as well as the many other proposals that exist elsewhere, represent experiments where there are gradations of the amount of teaching done. In the regents external degree program, no teaching is done. Degrees are granted through examination only. New York's other program at Empire State College and the University Without Walls involve considerable amounts of teaching through a variety of forms.

In the past, all of the basic functions of the education system, such as teaching, examining, validating, and credentialing, have been carried out by a single institution. This has been the history of traditional residential education. With the external degree, however, these activities cease to exist as the sole responsibility of a single institution. Instead, these activities may be carried out by a number of institutions, with one of them or a consortium ultimately providing the candidate with a degree.

TESTING AND TRANSFER

The key to this process in the external degree is the ease with which learning experiences can be transferred from one place to another. In a consortia type arrangement like the University Without Walls, this process is simplified greatly. The California State system allows a great deal of mobility within the confines of the State structure. In the regents external degree program, this process is accomplished through the acceptance of a variety of general and subject-matter examinations.

These examinations include the general knowledge examinations of the college level examination program and the U.S. Armed Services Institute [the general education development (GED) tests]. The subject matter examinations that are used are the New York State college proficiency examinations and the college-level examination program of the college entrance examination board.

As the names of these tests suggest, the great bulk of external degree activity is taking place at the undergraduate level. In some States where there exists an extensive two-year community college network, there is substantial external degree activity at levels comparable to the third and fourth year of undergraduate education. This upward mobility of students from these two-year institutions into external degree programs has, in effect, helped to introduce the "open-admission" policy at that level, whereas in the past such policies were generally limited to those coming from the high schools into the freshman level of college studies.

External degree programs at the graduate and professional levels exist in limited numbers, although it

would seem that the heavy emphasis on high student motivation and independent study would make the graduate level a likely focus for further external degree experimentation. There already exists an increasing number of independent study courses of a specialized nature at such centers of continuing education as Syracuse, Oklahoma, Nova, Brigham Young, and other universities. The latter two universities have underway doctoral level programs for educational administrators.

Despite the potential of the largely unexplored market for external degrees, enrollments in those programs which have already been activated have been comparatively small. The New York State regents program, for instance, recently graduated its first class of 77 students. This figure may be misleading, however, because the regents program itself currently enrolls about 1,000 students throughout the country as a result of receiving upwards of 20,000 inquiries about the program.

The regents program and the University Without Walls are national programs. Any student from any part of the country may enroll in them. Other programs are statewide and systemwide, as is the California experiment. Some of the older, specialized degree programs like those at the University of Oklahoma and Brigham Young University are international.

PROGRAM VARIETY

The breadth and scope of these activities are matched by their variety. Some are programs of examination only, followed by certification. Some examining programs have optional instructional activities attached to them. Some are basically independent study programs with periodic seminars, and some of these in turn have prescribed curriculum with no calendar attached, while others have both a prescribed curriculum and a prescribed calendar.

There are individually designed independent study programs and there are group designed independent study programs. There are mixtures of individual and group independent study programs, with both prescribed and unstructured curricula. Some are called weekend colleges, some evening colleges.

This great admixture of programs may be added to further, once other States have been able to decide what they want to do with the external degree. At the present, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Connecticut, Iowa, and a number of other States and independent bodies have established task forces and commissions to evaluate the feasibility of external degree programs.

COST REDUCTIONS

One of the assumptions that has generally been made about the external degree, and why many individuals find it so attractive, is the promise it holds for reducing the costs of an education. It is supposed that the reduction in the use of permanent faculty, university facilities and other resources, and the limited use, in many instances, of an elaborately designed curriculum, will help ease the financial burden for the degree candidate.

The cost-of-education formula being used by most programs is the same one traditionally used by university-based continuing education activities: that is, the program must pay its way by providing its own income, mostly through tuition charges, and expect minimal or no support directly from the university's general budget.

It is much too early to test how accurate this assumption is. It may indeed be false. Most of these programs require a high degree of individual tutoring and guidance. If their quality is to be assured, it would appear that considerable expense might be involved. In any case, *the experimental nature and the sheer variety of the many current and proposed programs would discourage for the moment a sound cost-effectiveness evaluation.* Present enrollments are small, to be sure, but in some programs, like New York's Empire State College, an enrollment of 10,000 students is expected by 1975 and 40,000 students by 1980.

The entrance of so large and undetermined a student body into a program in so short a time is bound to bring about substantial changes in the program. How costly will it be to develop the network of media transfer, including learning centers, workshops, permanent and adjunct faculty, symposia, actual classroom instruction, and residential requirements? How elaborate will they need to be?

QUALITY CONTROL

More importantly, how good will they be? How widely will they be accepted? The funding pattern is not the only issue which external degrees have in common with the traditional continuing education activities of the universities. The issue of quality control is of paramount concern to those who look upon these degrees with skepticism if not with hostility.

How does one measure the quality of a program which in all likelihood is a composite of discrete and

largely unrelated activities administered and taught by a changing faculty for a student body that may be as transient as the faculty? How can one evaluate the performance of those in a program where both the admissions and termination dates remain open and where it may be sometimes difficult to say who is and who is not actually enrolled in a program and, once enrolled, perhaps impossible to say who is actually engaged in studies toward a degree?

The amorphous nature of the external degree curriculum and the fluidity of faculty and student enrollment affects greatly the continuity of the program itself and the ability of those responsible to exercise control over it. Despite the heavy emphasis on independent study and the latitude given to individuals to hew and shape their own learning experiences, this control would seem to be essential if the quality of the programs is not to be sacrificed.

How this control is exercised will vary. In all probability, control will become most evident in the examinations that are used to evaluate things that do not ordinarily lend themselves to easy evaluation. The traditional forms of evaluation have depended largely on many quantitative items, like courses, credits and residency requirements, and subject qualitative assessments like class participation. But how does one assure the quality of a degree earned and the quality of learning absorbed, if what must be examined are learning experiences for which we do not now have adequate measuring devices?

To be sure, there is a grave risk of failure in this situation. But there is the possibility also of success: those who are in control of external degrees do recognize the need for new and better measuring instruments and are taking the steps to design and implement them.

The tests that are currently being used are identical to those used for internal students who are candidates for internal degrees. If an external degree candidate is able to demonstrate his ability by passing these same examinations, why then, it may be asked, should he not be entitled to the same degree?

STATUS VERSUS LEARNING

The California State university and college system believes he ought to be. In its eyes, the "status" of an individual as an external student is of secondary importance always to the reasons why a degree is granted: demonstrated competence in a field. Although the individual may have earned his degree externally, therefore, California grants him the same degree as it grants its other students, with no indication of how a student earned it.

This perspective is a conceptual difference which separates the California system from the policies and practices of most of the other active external degree programs around the country. It is a legitimate difference, no doubt, but in no way does it impair the steady progress being made by the California institutions, other institutions, and accrediting bodies, toward a dependable and equitable system of according academic credentials on a massive scale to large segments of the adult population.

The implications of this progress to higher education and to society are unclear. What new inroads the external degree will make, what new opposition it will encounter, can only be surmised for the moment. The excessive amount of exposure and publicity that have accompanied each new announcement of an external degree have not always helped these new programs. The excess has sometimes been disruptive.

Whatever happens, the external degree is now launched. Commitment to it, if maintained and adequately monitored and directed, will harvest its own benefits for its supporters. Of importance to both its supporters and nonsupporters, however, are the changes that the external degree may bring about within the traditional structure of American higher education.

The challenge to traditional education implicit in the external degree will undoubtedly lead to a better assessment of what is right and what is wrong about traditional educational processes. And very possibly, this might be the most important contribution of the thrust toward external degrees. □

INDEPENDENT STUDY AND CONSUMER PROTECTION

BACKGROUND

In our Sixth Annual Report, we touched briefly on the expanding field of independent study. In this report we decided to examine in greater depth one aspect of independent study: the need for consumer protection. At the root of this decision was concern about those facets of independent study which were described in our report last year in the following terms:

> *Educational institutions offering independent study courses vary widely in kind and quality. Most of them are proprietary schools, some of which have developed reputations for taking money from the credulous and offering little educational substance in return. The activities of unscrupulous entrepreneurs have undoubtedly tarnished the image of independent study, and despite Federal Trade Commission oversight and attempts at accreditation by the Office of Education, fly-by-night institutions do exist. When exposed, some simply change their names and addresses and continue to operate until again forced out of business. If . . . the taint of phony certificates, false claims, and inferior educational offerings could be removed, the acceptance of, and participation in, independent study would be strongly benefited.*

DIMENSIONS

There are over 1,000 correspondence schools in the United States. They have an enrollment estimated at roughly 6 million persons. In addition to the traditional lesson plans and written materials, some experimentation is occurring with various forms of recorded, broadcast, televised, and programed instruction. The principal form of independent study, however, is still the traditional "correspondence course."

Independent study (or "home study") usually means enrollment with an educational institution which provides a series of lessons the student can complete at his own pace and at a time and place of his own choosing. As a result, independent study is suited to the needs of the adult when time, distance or cost interfere with enrollment in standard "classroom" programs.

Estimates vary, but a roughly accurate guess would indicate that more than one-half of all correspondence study enrollments come from veterans and military personnel. In addition, the guaranteed loan program, established under the Higher Education Act, permits students to borrow up to $1,500 for independent study, provided they carry a sufficient course load. Further, the Higher Education Amendments Act of 1972 recognized the existence and role of proprietary institutions, many of which give prominence to independent study. By putting the proprietary institutions on something of a par with the nonprofit and State-supported institutions of higher education, this act has given new legitimacy and stature to commercial educational ventures.

WHAT ATTRACTS STUDENTS

In a credentials conscious society, the uncredentialed are at a patent disadvantage both socially and vocationally. Those who cannot obtain educational credentials through the usual routes, or who choose not to do so, often turn to independent study as the most convenient alternative. Active advertising campaigns carried on, particularly by commercial independent study organizations, bring this alternative to the attention of prospective clients and enrollments continue to boom.

At this point, it is important to make clear the distinction between the unwary and naive who fall victim to unscrupulous operators, and those who know full well that the courses they take and the credentials they

get are phony. This latter and very sizeable group does not want nor need consumer protection. They are merely interested in buying degrees, diplomas, or certificates which they can use to their advantage *vis-à-vis* prospective employers or within their own circle of friends. Such an interpretation, for example, accounts for the motivation of those well-educated, erudite people who buy a Ph. D. from a foreign or domestic degree mill in order to top-off previous degrees validly earned and conferred. In the broadest sense, these persons are being swindled willingly so that they can in turn swindle others. *Our concern here is both with the willingly swindled, who in turn may swindle others, and with those having valid educational interests which are not well served by the courses they buy.*

ROLE OF FTC

Federal action to curb the operation of unscrupulous correspondence schools is basically focused in the Federal Trade Commission. Under the Fair Trade Practices Act, the FTC is empowered to issue cease and desist orders against schools guilty of misrepresentation and false advertising. If the school chooses to contest the cease and desist order, experience has shown repeated difficulty in obtaining convictions (which can carry penalties of up to $5,000 per violation) and long delays in bringing cases to court. Federal prosecuting attorneys do not accord such cases high priority in their crowded schedules and the FTC is understaffed in attempting to cope with the numerous shady operators who begin new schools almost daily and who move from State to State to better avoid detection and prosecution.

The FTC can levy only civil penalties. However, the Postal Service is armed with statutory power to prosecute in mail fraud cases. Yet both the FTC and the Postal Service, to prosecute successfully, must prove that the educational product offered is essentially worthless. For the most part, neither the FTC nor the Postal Service is staffed or equipped to judge the academic merit of course offerings. Even more to the point, the Congress, sensitive always to charges of Federal interference in "academic freedom" has refrained from enacting the kinds of statutory provisions which would enable Federal agencies to better cope with the fraudulent and unscrupulous schools. To further complicate the enforcement problem, among the most persistent offenders are organizations which offer religious training, and who successfully rely on the doctrine of church-State separation to continue their activities free of governmental intrusion.

ROLE OF STATES

Given the difficulties which prevent the Federal Government from eliminating the shady operators in independent study, much of the responsibility necessarily devolves to the States. Here, the pattern is both complex and varied. A fair number of States—Texas, Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin among them—have excellent statutes designed to protect the public, although in some cases the excellence of the statute is not matched with its energetic enforcement. Other States, such as Tennessee, Georgia, and Florida have little or no statutory basis for dealing with degree mills or dishonest purveyors of education. In still other States, such as California, the applicable statutes are weak, but enforcement is energetic and competent, thereby compensating considerably for lack of a more effective statutory base. The problem presented, therefore, is that as long as some States remain a haven for the predatory schools, they can often continue to operate not only in their home State, but can use their home base to attract students from States with rigid enforcement capabilities.

UNIVERSITY INDEPENDENT STUDY

A number of the better universities offer independent study courses, often for credit. The reputation of the institution, to a major extent, ensures the academic integrity of these courses. However, a variety of problems are still encountered. Students sometimes find that even the institution which offers correspondence study for credit may impose limits on using such earned credits to obtain a degree, and transfer of independent study credit among different institutions is often difficult. Since these kinds of restrictions and limitations are often unknown to the student in advance, considerable dissatisfaction and allegations of bad faith not infrequently arise. While there is no real intent to victimize the student through imposition of such limitations on "acceptance" or "transfer" of credit, the end result is sometimes one where the student has cause to feel injured and misled.

INTERNAL POLICY

Many universities have provided both leadership and support to State and Federal efforts to better regulate independent study. In addition, the National Home Study Council, which represents proprietary

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schools, has established an accrediting commission recognized by the Office of Education and charged with developing and enforcing a code of ethics. With the recent entry of major firms such as McGraw Hill, Bell & Howell and Xerox Corporation into the independent study field, we can expect additional internal pressures for eliminating those operators whose activities tend to make all independent study somewhat suspect.

THE FEDERAL INTEREST

In addition to its legal responsibility, under applicable statutes, to eliminate flagrant abuses in independent study programs, the Federal Government has a direct financial stake in the quality of independent study. *Although reliable figures are unavailable, some estimates indicate that perhaps one-half of all independent study enrollments are funded by Federal moneys, with the Veterans Administration and the Defense Department being the major funding sources.* The VA, in particular, has expended substantial efforts to weed out the bad programs from the good, but the major ingredients of the problem have not been susceptible to the kinds of solutions and alternatives available to that agency.

ELEMENTS OF THE PROBLEM

The main elements and characteristics which constitute consumer victimization are well-known; they are summarized below only to provide a frame of reference in which to perceive the problem.

1. *False and misleading advertising.*—This ranges from oblique assurances of highly paid job opportunities after completion to misrepresentation of the course involved, the reputation of the school concerned, or the ability of the prospective student to succeed in the vocational field concerned, e.g., "You too can be a highly paid electronic technician by doing what thousands of others have done; completing our home study course featuring the most up-to-date instruction and materials from world-recognized leaders in the electronics field." [1]

2. *Encouraging those without aptitude or potential.*—The main objective of the unscrupulous independent study operators is to "get people signed up," not to deliver education. As a result, persons without the capacity to write a literate paragraph are encouraged to become short-story writers, and anyone who can afford the price of a course is assured of becoming competent to repair a TV set, a jet aircraft, or a space vehicle. Under these circumstances, it is not surprising that failure to complete the course is inordinately high; yet sometimes the certain dropout is exactly what is desired. In such circumstances, the full cost of the course is payable in advance. If the student fails to complete even a single lesson, there is no further cost to the school and the resulting profit is that much higher.

3. *Salesmen with a smooth sell.*—Typically, the initial interest in enrollment is sparked by an advertisement to which the prospective student responds by phone or mail. Once interest is expressed in this fashion, arrangements are often made for a salesman to meet the prospect. While public advertisements are subject to public scrutiny and could serve as evidence of misrepresentation, the private conversations between salesman and client do not have the same visibility or definity. The salesman is therefore free to encourage interest, reinforce the prospect's motivation and self-confidence, and make whatever sales pitch seems most appropriate to obtain an enrollment. Particularly when payment for the course comes from Government funds, the prospect, in effect, risks little by signing on the dotted line; if he likes the course and does well, fine. If not, he has merely used some of his existing benefits which he had no plans to use otherwise. The cost burden is therefore shifted to the taxpayer.

4. *High product costs.*—It can reasonably be assumed that commercial organizations offering home study courses enter the business because it is profitable; the same could be said of any other commercial venture. This need to show a profit can be a spur to product improvement and cost reduction or it can lead to educational short-cuts which cheapen the worth of the course. Because many of these courses are paid for by public funds, the student has less motivation to behave with cost-consciousness; at the same time, the Government agency paying tuition has no real capacity to judge the dollar worth of the course and to make that judgment apply.

PRESENT SITUATION

The present situation is one in which the Federal Government has not yet succeeded in adequately protecting itself or consumers against those home study organizations which offer shabby education or which entice students with grandiose claims and promises.

[1] This is purposely not a real example, but its essential elements appear repeatedly in the advertisements of schools which cannot reasonably justify such claims.

Nor is there a current ability to take action against persons who, with Government funds, take expensive courses through which they receive valuable materials—such as a color TV kit—under the guise of learning. There are no official estimates of the cost to persons or to public funds resulting from unscrupulous course offerors or course takers, and there is no estimate of the cost to the Government in trying to protect itself and the public. In short, given the concern in consumer protection with items such as automobiles or nonprescription drugs, consumer protection in the home study field commands low priority and low visibility and experiences a low level of success.

TO REMEDY

To remedy the present situation and move toward progress, several essential steps must be taken. An intensive study is required to produce data on the economic cost of unfruitful home study programs; this would indicate the magnitude of the problem and show what level of correction is justified. A review of the powers which Government has in consumer protection is needed, together with concrete proposals for adding to these powers where they are found insufficient. The general reaction perceived in Government agencies is that little can be done under present statutes. If this is indeed true, we see no real thrust for advocacy of better Federal laws to cope with this problem. Consumer education in this field is largely lacking and better public knowledge could in itself provide some measure of correction. And while an institution by institution determination of worth is difficult to conduct, or to enforce if made, the alternative should not be for the Federal Government to post in the marketplace a sign reading caveat emptor, and thereby satisfy its obligations.

The general pattern we perceive is most distressing. In effect, we see a National Government unable or unwilling to protect itself and its citizens from commercial predators. We cannot accept this as a responsible state of affairs to be condoned or continued through inaction. □

SPECIAL PROGRAMS
FOR
SPECIAL INDIVIDUALS

A QUESTION OF OPPORTUNITY: WOMEN AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION

The "women's movement" is affecting higher education in basic ways. Using amended Executive Order 11246 which prohibits discrimination on the part of Federal contractors, women have brought charges of sex discrimination against about 10 percent of the Nation's institutions of higher education. Further changes will occur as a result of the enactment of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, the Comprehensive Health Manpower Training Act of 1971, and the Education Amendments of 1972 which ban sex bias in health training programs, in employment and pay in public and private educational institutions, in all graduate admissions and in undergraduate admissions to coeducational public colleges. Concurrent with these legal challenges to institutional discrimination against women has been the steady growth of programs of "women's studies" which are examining the validity of traditional concepts about women in a wide variety of fields.

Less attention has been paid to a group of programs which predate the current phase of the "women's movement" and which usually operate at the periphery of the university in schools of continuing education. These programs, loosely categorized as "Continuing Education Programs and Services for Women," resist a clear definition or description. They range from programs which assist highly educated women of proven intellectual ability to pursue postdoctoral work on a part-time basis, to lectures on current affairs offered in participants' homes at times which are convenient to them.

What is common to these programs are two assumptions. The first is that the traditional role of a woman as a homemaker and mother often precludes completion of degree programs at institutions of higher education and/or inhibits the development of a career. The programs attempt to meet the needs of women who want to combine home responsibilities with further education or to complete their formal education when their child-rearing responsibilities have lessened. Secondly, advocates of these programs accept the premise that the primary purpose of an educational institution is to serve the needs of the individual.

DEPARTURES FROM TRADITION

Meeting these needs has led to a variety of modifications in traditional university policies. Courses are scheduled at times and locations appropriate to the schedules of busy housewives and other women who want to return to education. Arrangements have been made to transfer college credits earned a decade earlier. Through group counseling sessions, individual attention and carefully developed introductory courses, women gradually overcome initial feelings of inadequacy and are able to adapt to traditional university schedules. Day care centers have been established, and career counseling has led to a concern with the availability and identification of part-time jobs.

These programs offer a number of different possibilities for study. The role of the National Advisory Council on Extension and Continuing Education is, however, determined by law as "the review of the administration and effectiveness of all federally supported extension and continuing education programs . . ." Our particular responsibility then is to consider the impact of Federal aid in this area and to suggest ways its effect could be maximized.

STUDY DESIGN

We identified three areas of inquiry as a means of exploring this specific question: (1) Since some controversy exists about the necessity of providing

specialized educational programs and services for women, we felt a review of relevant research concerning employment, the appropriateness of traditional university offerings, and vocational and educational lifestyles of women should precede any recommendations concerning expansion of existing support. That material is included in part I. (2) The Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor published a guide, "Continuing Education Programs and Services for Women," listing 376 colleges and universities which offer programs containing special procedures or services designed specifically for mature women. A necessary prior step to any recommendation for Federal support was an analysis of the size, nature, method of financing, and constituency of these programs. In addition, we were particularly interested in learning of priorities for Federal funds as perceived by practitioners in the field. The results of a questionnaire sent to the 376 program directors are described in part II of this chapter, along with some of the more successful models of programs for women. (3) Although few of the university-based programs for mature women are supported by Federal funds, both the Civil Service Commission and the Department of Agriculture, through the Cooperative Extension Service, provide a wide range of training and educational opportunities for women. A review of educational legislation revealed that the Cooperative Research Act, the Vocational Education Act of 1963, the Higher Education Act of 1965 and the Education Professions Development Act, all have provisions which would permit the funding of services and/or research which would promote more effective development of programs for women. Our purpose in part III of this chapter was to assess the impact of these activities and to identify potential funding sources for practitioners in the field.

Part I—Research Relevant to Continuing Education Needs of Women

> *Means of acquiring or continuing education must be available to every adult at whatever point he or she broke off traditional formal schooling. The structure of adult education must be drastically revised. It must provide practicable and accessible opportunities, developed with regard for the needs of women, to complete elementary and secondary school and to continue education beyond high school. Vocational training, adapted to the Nation's growing requirement for skilled and highly educated manpower, should be included at all these educational levels. Where needed and appropriate, financial support should be provided by local, State, and Federal governments and by private groups and foundations.*[1]

This quotation is significant for a number of reasons. By its call for the wider availability of educational opportunities for all adults, it illustrates that a focus on the special educational needs of mature women quickly leads to a recognition that much must be done before we can adequately serve anyone—male or female. A second significance lies in its source and date. This recommendation appeared in the prestigious report of the President's Commission on the Status of Women, "American Women," in 1963. Many other recommendations in that report have since been enacted, but the kinds of financial support and national commitment necessary for systematic provision of lifelong learning opportunities have not materialized.

Research results alone have never persuaded decisionmakers or the general public of the importance of commitment to a social goal. What is possible, however, from a review of existing research is some clarification of the reasons why specialized programs for women are necessary and what the implications of these programs may be for the field of continuing education. There is much yet to be discovered—for example, we do not know the number of women enrolled in continuing education programs—and the paucity of research confirms the peripheral attention given this field. We do have some information, however, on employment opportunities, obstacles to graduate study as perceived by women, participation rates for women in continuing education programs, and female career and identity developmental processes.

EMPLOYMENT

Although personal enrichment will always be a major motivation for education, clearly, universities also provide a crucial service by increasing vocational

[1] *American Women*, report of the President's Commission on the Status of Women (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1963), p. 13.

opportunities. Data concerning employment of women are basic to a consideration of the need for continuing education programs. Two questions are of prime importance: (1) How many women are working and what are their reasons for employment? and (2) Are women discriminated against in employment and could the provision of additional educational opportunities help alleviate this problem?

Currently, there are over 31.5 million women in the labor force. More important than this number is the change this total represents from a more rural and less technological society of 50 years ago. In 1920, 20 percent of the work force was female. Today it is 38 percent. During this period, the profile of the average woman worker has changed greatly—from that of the young (age 28) single factory worker or clerk to that of the older (age 39) married woman who may be found in any of a great number of occupations.

Of particular significance is the fact that mature women returning to work are largely responsible for the great increase in the percentage of women in the work force. In 1970, half of all women 35 to 64 years of age were in the labor force, as compared with one out of four in 1940. During three periods of a woman's life, more than half the women of her age group are working. During the ages of 20 to 24, 58 percent are working; 51 percent of women between 35 to 44 are employed, as are 54 percent of the women between 44 to 54.

Contrary to the myth that most women work only for "pin money" or for the social diversions offered by a job, of the 32-million women in the labor force in March 1971, nearly half were working because of a pressing economic need. These women were either single, widowed, divorced, separated, or had husbands whose incomes were less than $3,000 a year. Another 5.4 million had husbands with incomes between $3,000 and $7,000—incomes which, by and large, did not meet the criteria established by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for even a low standard of living for an urban family of four.

Both rates of unemployment and figures on comparative earnings reflect a pattern of discrimination against women. In 1971, women had an unemployment rate of 5.9 percent, while that for men was 4.4 percent. The median earnings for women were only three-fifths those of men—$4,977 and $8,227, respectively, in 1969. Despite the current furor about "women's liberation" and the attention of the media to discrimination against them, women working in 1970 earned only 59.4 percent of the salaries of men, while in 1955, they received 63.9 percent.

Although the principle of "equal pay for equal work" has not yet been uniformly put into practice, there are indications that the discrepancy in earnings is primarily due to the fact that women occupy positions of less responsibility and prestige than do men. The Department of Labor cites the following examples:

> *In public elementary and secondary schools, women were less than 20 percent of the principals; superintendents; deputy, associate, and assistant superintendents; and other central office administrators in 1970–71.*
>
> *Among professional and technical workers in business, women are concentrated in the class B and class C computer programer positions, while men are more frequently employed in the higher paying class A positions. Similarly women are usually in the lowest category of draftsmen and engineering technicians.*
>
> *Among managers and proprietors, women frequently operate small retail establishments, while men may manage manufacturing plants or wholesale outlets.*[2]

Another reason for this discrepancy in earning power may be that many women are involved with family responsibilities during their early twenties when career patterns traditionally are being established.

More women are working; many of them are employed because the financial well-being of their families requires their income, but they receive less pay than men do for their work. What bearing do programs of continuing education for women have on this problem? First, it should be noted that the discrepancy between male and female earning power decreases as the educational level increases. When earnings of men are compared with those of women with equivalent educational levels, the least disparity in income occurs when both groups have five years or more of postsecondary education. At that educational level, women earn 65 percent of the salaries of men. Secondly, the time sequence pattern of employment for women indicates their child-rearing responsibilities occupy only a part of their adult lives and that they have from 25 to 30 years of adult life in which they

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[2] "Fact Sheet on the Earnings Gap," report of the Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1972) p. 4 (all other data on employment in this section were furnished by the Women's Bureau).

are able to return to work or to further education. In 1970, the youngest child of the average American woman was born when she was 30 and was in school when she was 35.

It would be foolish to say that an increase in opportunities for continuing education for women would automatically produce a parity in earnings of men and women. Job discrimination against women is pervasive and must be attacked in a variety of ways. What is clear is that many women are working, either by necessity or personal choice, and that opportunities for education, provided in ways which are appropriate to their life patterns, would increase their productivity, minimize the risk of discrimination and provide the society with more fully realized talent.

OBSTACLES TO GRADUATE STUDY

Data on employment provide one kind of evidence for the need for continuing education programs for women. What form these programs should take and what the significant characteristics of the female lifestyle are, must be considered in light of other studies which probe more specifically into reasons women have not followed traditional educational patterns.

According to Elizabeth L. Cless, "More than 75 percent (some estimates are as high as 95 percent) of all intellectually qualified youngsters who do not enter college are girls." She also notes that half of the women who enter college drop out, and that women with bachelor's degrees are "less than half as likely as men to earn a graduate degree, despite the fact that, on the average, they have better undergraduate records." [3]

Few studies exist which attempt to analyze the reasons for the high drop-out rate of women in post-secondary education. The concern of the National Institutes of Health with a shortage of manpower in the medical and scientific professions resulted in a special report entitled "Women and Graduate Study" which analyzed the obstacles women perceived to graduate study and the leverage factors which might influence a higher number of talented women to complete their advanced work for graduate and professional degrees.

This study found that of 131,200 women who earned the bachelor's degree in 1961, 72 percent planned to attend graduate school and 42 percent had enrolled by 1964. Only two-fifths of the women enrolled in graduate school in the spring of 1964 were full-time students. They ranged from a high of approximately 92 to 95 percent in medicine and the physical sciences (which are usually heavily supported by programs of financial assistance) downward to only 34 percent for those in sociology and anthropology.

Four out of ten women desired to attend graduate school but were unable to do so. In their opinion, the factors essential to attending graduate school were: availability of child care centers, ability to matriculate as a part-time student and strong approval of the husband. Of particular concern to NIH was the fact that the greatest net losses in planned career fields in the 3-year period following college graduation were in areas of prime importance to medical research and education. The net loss to medicine was 48 percent, the physical sciences, 41 percent, and the "other" biosciences, 40 percent.[4] Not surprisingly, only 6 percent of the practicing physicians in 1968 were women.

This particular study serves the purpose of confirming with data what many directors of continuing education programs for women have reported—the practical obstacles to higher education for women are availability of part-time programs, financial aid, and child care services. Other more ephemeral and less easily analyzed factors, however, also influence a woman's career and educational patterns. One such factor is the kind of vocational counseling available to girls when they are tentatively considering career choices and the vocational research which undergirds counseling approaches.

VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

In an article entitled "Sex and Occupational Choice," Rose and Elton note that for counselors who want to assist their female clients to develop occupational goals, there is very little in either theory or empirical evidence to guide them. Other research suggests that one reason existing vocational theories may be inadequate for women is that college-career orientation for them may not predict later vocational behavior, perhaps because college women do not have

[3] Cless, Elizabeth L., "A Modest Proposal for the Educating of Women," *American Scholar*, vol. 38, No. 4, Autumn 1969.

[4] "Special Report on Women and Graduate Study," report of the Office of Program Planning and Evaluation, National Institutes of Health (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1968) p. vii.

adequate knowledge of their abilities and vocational interests and cannot anticipate the impact that marriage and family responsibilities will have on their potential career.[5]

Studies in yet another area related to vocational counseling suggest that the assumed differences between men and women in terms of mechanical aptitude and interest and abstract reasoning may be largely the result of cultural conditioning. And, finally the validity of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, a basic instrument for determining vocational preferences, has been questioned in terms of its value in assessing vocational interests of women, and that instrument is now being revised.[6]

Although more research is needed to produce appropriate counseling for women, it is clear that the past inability of counselors to respond to the needs of women has a direct bearing on the current necessity of providing continuing education programs. If a woman is offered only narrowly conceived choices about her future occupational opportunities, the importance of widening these opportunities at a later age becomes particularly important. In addition, if we assume that the tentativeness of a woman's commitment to a career during college is due to her primary focus on marriage and child-rearing, the point of intervention would appear to be when her major child-rearing responsibilities are over.

Reports from directors of continuing education programs for women cite the enthusiasm and tenacity with which they respond to new educational challenges. It is surprising, therefore, to discover that two studies suggest that a larger proportion of men than women participated in adult education courses, even though women outnumbered men in the adult population. According to results of a survey by the National Opinion Research Center, the greatest discrepancy in participation rate of white women occurred between the ages of 25 to 34 years of age. Men's participation rate was 24.7 percent, whereas the rate for women in this age bracket was only 13.9 percent. The impact of parenthood appeared to have quite opposite results on the educational behavior of husbands and wives; the rates of study for mothers were lower than for nonmothers, but among men they were higher among fathers than nonfathers.[7]

One could conclude tentatively from this study that continuing education programs should be geared to women whose children have entered school. However, given the extremely limited availability of day care services at universities—only 5 percent of the programs listed in "Continuing Education Programs and Services for Women" offer day care—an equally credible conclusion is that we have not yet begun to develop programs which are responsive to the needs of young mothers.

One final study developed by Edward Thorndike should be mentioned. Citing a phenomenon he calls "inner growth" which reaches its height at about the age of 22, Thorndike suggests that it is easier for adults to learn than it is for children and adolescents. People between the ages of 25 and 45 have as good learning ability as people between the ages of 20 to 25, a better ability than those between 15 and 20, and a much better ability than those from 5 to 15.[8] The significance of this study is, of course, its documentation of the idea that women are psychologically best able to learn at the very time when it is most convenient for them to do so.

CONCLUSIONS

Part I began with a justification for increased opportunities for continuing education based on the simple premise that many women work and that inequities in terms of earning power would lessen as their level of education increased. Following that discussion was an analysis of some factors which have inhibited career development and extended education for women. These factors range from lack of day care facilities at universities to inappropriate research in the area of vocations.

In some sense, then, the argument for continuing education programs for women is dependent on a view that such programs are a form of compensation for other inequities. Perhaps so, but it would be a mistake to end on that note. Even if job discrimination were ended, girls and young women received counseling and vocational guidance appropriate to them, and graduate

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[5] Rose, H. A. and Elton, C. F., "Sex and Occupational Choice," *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 1971, 18 (5), p. 460.

[6] Astin, H. S., Suniewick, N. and Dweck, S., *Women: a bibliography of their education and careers* (Washington: Human Service Press, 1971) p. 4.

[7] Johnstone, W. C. "Adult uses of education: fact and forecast." In Burns, H. W., *Sociological backgrounds of adult education*. "Notes and Essays on Education for Adults, No. 42." Chicago: Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, 1964. p. 111.

[8] Thorndike, Edward L., *Adult Learning* (New York, 1928), p. 129.

schools were more receptive to their needs, there would probably always be a place for programs which allow women flexibility about their education and career patterns. After all, the primary justification for continuing education programs for women is the same justification which undergirds all of continuing education. People are different—their needs, interests and talents vary—and they must be given many different options, at many different times, to learn.

NOTE.—Material mentioned in footnotes 3 and 8 was first cited in an unpublished report by Xandra Kayden for the Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. That report is titled, "Report on Women and Continuing Education: The Need for Change." Material mentioned in footnotes 5, 6, and 7 was first cited in an unpublished paper by Lorraine D. Eyde of the Bureau of Intergovernmental Personnel Programs, U.S. Civil Service Commission. That paper is titled "Met and Unmet Needs of Women: Implications for Continuing Education for Women."

Part II—Analysis of Questionnaires

INTRODUCTION

A precise identification of all educational programs and services for mature women would be of invaluable benefit to legislators, educators, and to women who contemplate a return to higher education. Unfortunately, however, our resources did not permit the kind of exhaustive collection of data and followup required by such a survey. Our aims were more modest. First, we were concerned with the extent and nature of previously identified services and programs. Secondly, since our legislative charge is to make recommendations concerning continuing education programs and services, we wanted an opportunity to learn of funding priorities from educators who had been active in the field. Finally, we hoped that a questionnaire would enable us to identify successful and innovative models which could be replicated elsewhere.

The source document for the questionnaire was a catalog, *Continuing Education Programs and Services for Women*, published in 1971, by the Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor. Developed to serve an immediate and pressing need, the catalog is intended to be illustrative, rather than exhaustive, of institutions which have developed programs to meet educational needs of mature women. Identifications of programs and services were by written requests for information to over 1,800 institutions of higher education, and catalog descriptions were, for the most part, developed by the institutions.

Often cited as evidence of a steady growth in the opportunities for continuing education, the catalog describes 376 relevant programs and services at universities, an increase of 126 over the 1968 total of fewer than 250. An index provides further information about the nature of these programs and services. For example, there are 55 listings for paraprofessional training, 5 listings for volunteer training and 51 listings of programs offering financial aid. The criterion for inclusion in the catalog was that a program "contained specific procedures or services designed for mature women."

Although a gain of 126 institutions within 3 years may be cause for some encouragement, the discrepancy between need and demand is suggested by the fact that 376 represents only 15 percent of the more than 2,500 institutions of higher education. The situation appears even more bleak in light of an analysis of the state of continuing education for women by Dr. Jacquelyn Mattfield, "A Decade of Continuing Education: Dead End or Open Door." That analysis combined a followup survey of selected programs listed in the Women's Bureau catalog with a review of data collected by the American Association of University Women on the status of women in academe. Dr. Mattfield reports that: "While 95 percent of 454 institutions responding to the AAUW survey reported that they "offer opportunities for mature women to complete degrees," only 44 percent reported having any special program for mature women. Slightly less than half make adjustments in rate of work, class hours, or customary academic policies or procedures to fit their particular needs." Few of the schools surveyed were able to give statistics or even the approximate number of mature women students enrolled.

This discrepancy between an implied commitment to continuing education for women and lack of administrative policies which express that commitment is further confirmed by Dr. Mattfield's analysis of the program and services described in "Continuing Education Programs and Services for Women." She identified 156 of the 376 programs listed as ones which would admit or facilitate the admission of adult women into degree programs. Initial inquiries made of 156 established that 52 were extension programs or evening

adult programs that had no particular relevance to women. Only 44 of those programs whose directors completed and returned the questionnaire were designed primarily or exclusively to accommodate the characteristic life styles of unemployed adult women. Only 13 directors reported that any data were being collected on past or present continuing education students, and there were no known studies of the alumnae.

Our research was aimed at developing further clarification of this evidence of minimal and poorly conceived commitment to the needs of mature women. We also had an additional focus of inquiry. We wanted to know sources of financial support for these programs and to what areas financial assistance should be directed if Federal funds became available.

NUMBER OF PROGRAMS

Responses were received from 190 of the program directors listed in "Continuing Education Programs and Services for Women." Sixty-one of these program directors indicated that they provided no special services or programs to accommodate the needs of mature women. The great majority of these programs appear to have been included in the catalog simply because they offer courses of interest to women or because the nature of their programs permits them to offer courses at times which were convenient to women. Nine of the programs had been terminated since the Women's Bureau collected data for the catalog. These programs had either been supported by funds granted under Title I of the Higher Education Act or by State legislatures which were reducing support for continuing education activities. Eight of the respondents indicated that they offer a single vocational course, often federally-funded, in an area traditionally regarded as a "women's field."

SIZE OF STAFF AND SOURCES OF FINANCIAL SUPPORT

Numerical data from a catalog can easily be misleading. Thus, when reference is made to the 376 institutions offering programs and services to mature women, the extensive services offered by the Minnesota Planning and Counseling Center are equated with programs which provide a single course of special interest to women. We had particular interest in determining the magnitude of resources devoted to these efforts. Our request for information to program directors contained three questions with a bearing on this issue. We asked for an estimate of the percentage of the program director's time which was devoted to the services provided women, the number of persons on the staff, and total budget devoted to the program.

In most cases, data on size of program staff and total budgets were not usable. Often directors indicated that they had access to other staff and resources of the university and were unable to separate the budget for continuing education for women from the general budget for continuing education. The great majority of directors did, however, indicate that programs and services were on a self-supporting basis.

Responses concerning the percentage of administrative time devoted to the program were somewhat more revealing and further evidence of the peripheral and tenuous status of "women's programs" on university campuses. Of the 112 programs serving the educational needs of mature women, only 36 had program directors who devoted more than half of their time to these programs. Five of these responses indicated duplication; i.e., a single university offered programs at more than one campus or had two separate programs serving women.

The sparse allocation of staff resources to these programs suggested a scarcity of financial resources. We analyzed only the 36 programs retaining a program director more than half-time, assuming that other programs were self-supporting or had only minimal funds available from universities. Eleven of the program directors indicated that financial support was not available from any source; i.e., courses and services were entirely self-supporting. An equal number reported that they received some support from the university, either in access to supportive services or in provision of general budget support. Five universities had received foundation grants, and one had received support from a State agency for a training program. Only six program directors indicated that Federal funds had been a source of program support. As significant, perhaps, as this minimal involvement by the Federal Government, is the fact that the initiative for the most extensive programs came from foundations and that program directors concerned with expansion indicated that they would turn to foundations for support.

PRIORITIES FOR FEDERAL FUNDS

An open-ended question asked program directors to describe their priorities for financial assistance if Federal funds were to become available. Responses to this

question overwhelmingly cited the great need for financial assistance to part-time students. One respondent, in particular, captured the frustrations many directors expressed about seeing the initial enthusiasm about further education thwarted by lack of financial assistance.

> *In our first minisemester, the interest of the women in continuing education was literally irrepressible. However, the major obstacle for each and every one of them was financial. For the most part, they were mothers of young families and wives of husbands still low on the professional or career ladder. None felt they could take the money it would require to finance their own education and their responsibilities were such that they could not resume full-time studies and perhaps become eligible for some kind of financial assistance.*

Since financial assistance to part-time students is of central importance to program directors, we again turned to *Continuing Education Programs and Services for Women* to determine what resources were available to women continuing their education. That catalog lists 42 institutions which provide such financial assistance. As with the previous analysis of the number of institutions actually serving the needs of mature women, appearance was far from reality. Seven institutions indicated that they offered a "limited number" of scholarships, in most cases, one or two. Six institutions replied that only standard programs of Federal aid were open to women. In five cases, financial aid was tied to a specific, federally-funded vocational training program. Four institutions did not grant financial aid at all, but had local chapters of AWARE, which had limited scholarship funds available. Tuition remission for alumnae and faculty wives was available at nine institutions. One program had been terminated and one had scholarships available only for graduates of a local high school. Seven institutions did not respond.

One institution, the University of Illinois, had set aside $9,000 annually for part-time students, and another institution reported $2,000 available in scholarship aid. Simmons and Sarah Lawrence Colleges, although not reflected in the total of 42 institutions, make their own financial resources available to part-time female students on a prorated basis. In summation, four institutions, at best, have allocated financial resources for part-time students in a way which exhibits a commitment to continuing education programs for women.

Some limited assistance is available to students from three different foundations. Altrusa International Foundation offers Founders Fund Vocational Aid Awards of $50 to $350 for women of all ages who need to work, but lack the funds necessary to help them qualify for employment. Awards are given for such purposes as job training or retraining, purchase of wage-earning equipment, or personal rehabilitation. During the last year, approximately $50,000 were granted by the foundation through this award program. Career advancement scholarships are awarded by the Business and Professional Women's Foundation to women of any age who need financial aid for further education or training on a full- or part-time basis. During the last two years, approximately $75,000 were expended on these scholarships. The Council of Southern Universities operates a development program for mature women which enables those over 21 years of age who are residents of the South to engage in one year of intensive retraining or concentrated study on a full- or part-time basis. Approximately $20,000 are available annually in funds.

The debilitating effect of lack of financial assistance on programs for mature women is one striking example of the effects of a Federal policy which, until recently, has virtually neglected the needs of the part-time student and of women. Students who attend school part-time generally do so because they have responsibilities and financial commitments which preclude full-time attendance. Rather than exhibiting a responsiveness, however, to the high degree of motivation and great need associated with such attendance, the Federal Government has concentrated its programs of financial assistance on full-time students.

An earlier survey by the Council revealed a vast array of programs for financial support, ranging from funds granted under the Social Security Amendments of 1965, which in fiscal year 1971 totaled $624 million, to special grant and loan programs for the disadvantaged. At that time, no grant programs existed which provided support for part-time students, and loans were available only for students registered at least half-time.

EXEMPLARY PROGRAMS AND FURTHER PRIORITIES

Although data from the questionnaires presented a bleak picture of the resources available to continuing education programs for women, we were more for-

tunate in identification of programs and services which had been particularly imaginatively conceived and successful in meeting the needs of women.

One criticism of this technique of attempting to describe "successful programs" is important both because it indicates the limitations of replicating "canned programs" and because it conveys an attitude basic to the most effective programs—that program development must be based on sensitive and creative dialog with women about their needs. To our request for descriptions of techniques which had been particularly effective in her program, one respondent replied:

> *What program directors need is not a list of simple ideas expressible in two sentences and inexpensive. Program directors need a consultant who can help them to: identify the people they intend to serve, collect a group of such clients, learn how to get these clients to understand and then express their situation. Then they need help in designing creative solutions for that particular situation. Then they need training or an assistant in communicating this solution, involving people, and a consultant again to encourage them to be flexible to redesign the bugs out of their first experimental solutions.*

Although this dictum is important, any study based on a survey risks a loss of the concrete details about programs which convey a sense of how lives are being changed. An analysis of the data does not capture the vitality, ingenuity, and commitment of program directors. Many respondents supplemented the questionnaire with letters, written materials, and additional comments. Following are some of the common themes and threads of these materials.

UNIVERSITY COMMUNITY RELATIONS

"Community service" has increasingly become a concern of universities. With the assistance of substantial allocations of Federal funds, new approaches are being explored and new relationships created in an attempt to bring university resources to bear on local problems. With virtually no Federal assistance, continuing education programs for women are producing precisely that effect—a network of voluntary relationships between university and community which is based on a desire to solve a common problem.

Many programs were initiated by volunteers from the community and staffed by them during the early stages of program operation. The Greater Miami Dade Junior College is one striking example of this successful involvement of volunteers with the university. Formed in 1965 as a result of a community workshop on continuing education for women, the staff donated their services until they received a grant under Title I of the Higher Education Act. Currently the program operates with an advisory council composed of representatives of seven area educational institutions and 20 members elected to represent the business community. Their major program is an information and referral service to women who want to go back to school, volunteering or employment. Referral people in each of the participating educational institutions, the business community, and in educational and training programs ease the transition back to school or employment by providing individual and sympathetic assistance.

The Women's Opportunity Center at the University of California at Irvine similarly provides counseling, guidance, and referral for employment and education opportunities. The center has served over 1,300 women and is staffed totally by volunteers who have contributed over 3,500 volunteer hours.

In addition to drawing on the community for volunteer assistance, programs have been active in increasing the skills of volunteers in local service agencies so that they more effectively serve the community. Ohio State University provides workshops for volunteers in areas which range from planned parenthood to senior citizens. The extension division of Rutgers University provides extension consultants to voluntary organizations.

CLIENT-ORIENTATION

Universities are increasingly being criticized for their impersonality, their irrelevance to the needs and interests of the individual, and their focus on research to the exclusion of their original mission—teaching. Responses from directors of continuing education programs for women, however, show a healthy acceptance of the view that education is not a mechanical transfer of facts from teacher to student, but a process in which the expectations, hopes and fears of the student bear heavily on her capacity to learn. This concern with the psychological factors which promote learning is reflected in many ways. Perhaps the clearest expression of this interest is in two responses to our request for descriptions of program methods which had been par-

ticularly successful. One woman commented simply, "A sympathetic ear." Another elaborated on this view.

> *I would hope that you would start with the adult education view of education: a concern for the person, exploration with representatives of this audience-to-be . . . then a program design which brings whatever services are needed by this population and then a careful evaluation with the client, a redesign and a use of leaders from among this clientele to be among the future leaders.*

With almost absolute consistency, program directors commented on the apprehensions of women about their ability to succeed in college and the importance of finding ways to alleviate those fears.

Most directors stress the importance of effective guidance and counseling, particularly during the early stages of a client's involvement with the program. There is also heavy emphasis on the kind of psychological support an can receive from her peers. One of the more successful community college programs, Potential of Women (POW) at Jamestown Community College in New York, arranges the sequence of courses for returning women so that they take their courses together during the first year and then, when they have developed confidence about their ability, integrates them into the standard university program.

Similarly, students at the Center for Continuing Education at Sarah Lawrence begin their program by taking courses at the Center from faculty who have exhibited special interest and ability in teaching mature women. Other techniques which have been successful involve the use of peer counselors and of advisory committees with student representatives.

MOTIVATION TO LEARN

Another theme in comments by program directors is the tenacity and enthusiasm of women (after they overcome their initial apprehensions) about their ability to master course materials and academic requirements. Although few program directors have a financial base which permits collection of data on clientele, respondents stress the persistence of enrollees in pursuing their educational objectives and the very real sense of self-fulfillment that these programs offer.

Sarah Lawrence College and the University of Minnesota have been able, as a result of foundation support, to analyze results of participation in their programs. Results of these analyses show both a higher retention rate and a higher level of achievement for women returning to higher education than for undergraduates following more standard university patterns. The potential importance of these initial findings is obvious and goes far beyond issues of concern only to women. The data support the views of a growing minority that people learn best when they are motivated to learn and that opportunities for education must be provided throughout the lifetime of an individual.

CONCLUSIONS

University-based programs designed to serve the educational needs of mature women are, by and large, inadequately financed, understaffed, and peripheral to the major concerns of the university. Where gains have been made and substantial programs exist, they are usually the result of long and tenacious efforts to secure foundation funds and university commitments to the program. The effort to provide continuing education opportunities for women has been particularly hampered by the lack of Federal programs of financial assistance for part-time students.

Despite the scarcity of financial resources allocated to these programs, a number of gains have been made which have bearing on the university's ability to respond to changing social needs. New links between the community and university have been developed. Attention has been focused on the validity of the traditional "lockstep pattern" of education and on the rigidity of rules concerning transfer of credit and part-time study. Perhaps most importantly, continuing education programs for women have revitalized the idea that the most important kind of learning results in changes in life-style and in self-image and often requires long and difficult struggle.

One of the more significant findings of "A Question of Stewardship," the Sixth Annual Report of the National Advisory Council on Extension and Continuing Education, was that the Federal Government typically turned to universities for assistance in meeting immediate and pressing community problems. Legislation was enacted in an atmosphere of crisis, often with no program prototypes or substantial evidence on which to consider alternative approaches to a problem.

It is ironic, then, that the Federal Government has failed to build on the extensive experience of successful university efforts to meet the continuing education needs of women. Virtually without Federal support, a 10-year record of service has been established. Failures have occurred; successes have been scored, and women are now in a position where Federal funds would enable them to implement lessons they have learned. One probable reason for this lack of attention is that the continuing education needs of women probably will never be a volatile and dramatic issue like drug abuse or race relations. The fabric of society is not threatened in an immediate way by a failure to respond to the needs of women for education. What is at stake is the very old and basic issue of the importance of providing all citizens an opportunity to develop their full potential. □

Part III—Analysis of Federal Responses to Need for Continuing Education Programs for Women

INTRODUCTION

Part I of this chapter describes some of the reasons why specialized educational programs for mature women are necessary, and part II suggests that with nominal Federal and State resources, a number of imaginative and important programs have been developed to meet these needs. Part III is a brief review of Federal programs and activities which currently support continuing education for women or which could be redesigned to meet those needs.

We wanted to accomplish several purposes with the analysis in this part. First, we began with an assumption that Federal legislation and programs exist which could be used to provide financial assistance for badly needed research on women and their educational needs and to support the expansion of services and educational offerings at universities. We also suspected that neither Federal officials nor practitioners in the field of women's programs had fully realized the potential of current legislation since the former are unused to viewing women as an educationally disadvantaged group and the latter tend to view foundations, rather than the Federal Government, as the most promising source of financial assistance. In addition to testing this assumption, we wanted to analyze the implications of the Education Amendments of 1972 so that we could suggest to professionals in the field of continuing education promising sources of financial assistance.

Although there has been very little Federal support for the kinds of university programs surveyed in part II of this study, the Federal Government is heavily involved in the support of continuing education programs which affect women. The activities of the Cooperative Extension Service and the Civil Service Commission both have bearing on the kinds of roles and educational experiences available to women. We wanted to determine the long-range purposes which those funds were intended to accomplish and the congruence of those purposes with the joint needs of women for self-fulfillment and professional development and of the society for a maximization of human potential.

COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE

Established in 1914, the Cooperative Extension Service is best known for its efforts to bring university research to bear on the problems of rural life and for its use of extension agents to work directly with individuals. Almost from the inception of the Service, these activities have included a focus on family living. While farmers were receiving results of the latest research on soil preservation and marketing, their wives received instruction on topics designed to improve their capability as homemakers, such as sewing, family relationships, budgeting, and nutrition. (It should be noted at this point that all instruction offered through the Cooperative Extension Service is noncredit.)

The magnitude of this effort at the current time is suggested by some recent figures from the Department of Agriculture. During fiscal year 1971, a total of $64,580,000 in Federal, State, and county funds were committed to the budget for home economics. Slightly over 20 percent of the total effort of the Service in extension was devoted to two programs, food and nutrition and improved family living. In terms of personnel, 311,954 man-days were allocated to the food and nutrition program, and 530,764 man-days were allocated to the family living program. The Department of Agriculture estimates that over 8 million people were reached directly or indirectly through these programs.

Although the basic aim of the improved family living program has not changed significantly since its inception—its basic concern is "to acquaint families with information, services and skills helpful in creation of

a sound and stable domestic life"—the focus of some of the educational offerings has, of course, evolved with changing social needs. The growth during the last decade of research on early child development has led to more sophisticated approaches to child rearing. An interest in family budgeting has evolved into a focus on the whole area of consumer education. Increasingly, women are realizing that the well-being of their families cannot be separated from that of their towns or country, and they are discussing areas of public policy.

The food and nutrition program represents a totally new effort of the Cooperative Extension Service and one which has considerable impact on women. Initiated in November of 1969 with an appropriation of $28 million, it now has a budget of $50 million. Its purpose is to improve the nutrition and dietary habits of low-income people by training paraprofessionals to work with community groups and agencies and with families. Currently, there are about 10,000 aides, each of whom has received an initial 3-week training course in food preparation, cooking, nutrition, and teaching. In 1971, 57.9 percent of the more than 300,000 families served were in urban areas, and 60.5 percent of the total families served had incomes of less than $3,000 per year. Like the county agents, the nutrition aides depend on persuasion and personal contact to convince families of the importance of changing dietary habits.

The Cooperative Extension Service is unique in the magnitude of Federal, local, and university resources on which it can call. Its extension agents long ago developed an approach to teaching which is just now being revitalized by directors of continuing education for women. The importance of learning from one's peers and of group interaction as a method of reinforcing learning are at the heart of both extension activities and many programs of continuing education for women. By its new record of service to urban areas and its use of paraprofessionals, the Cooperative Extension Service has shown that it can respond to a new challenge.

Other challenges remain. The Service was established to serve a rural economy in which large families were encouraged, household conveniences were unavailable, and the great majority of women spent their lives in the home. Today, half of all women 35 to 64 years of age are in the labor force, as compared with one out of four in 1940.

Convincing women to take the initial step to return to school has been a major problem of continuing education programs for women. Upon completion of retraining programs which conveyed the kinds of possibilities available to women through continuing education, extension agents in home economics would be in a unique position to provide information about continuing education opportunities. In addition to the trust they have already generated, they have the additional advantage of being university-based and therefore familiar with its resources.

TRAINING ACTIVITIES SPONSORED BY THE CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

During the last decade the Federal Government has increasingly become involved in providing training opportunities for its employees. These training activities, the great majority of which are noncredit, are designed to serve a multitude of purposes and represent a commitment to the concept that both the government and the individual will profit by the availability of new learning throughout a working career. Some of these purposes are expressed as follows: (1) To improve the performance of current duties; (2) to provide opportunities for employees to reach their full potential; (3) to keep abreast of the "state of the art" and maintain specialized proficiencies; (4) to accommodate to changing equipment or mission assignments; and (5) to develop skills unavailable through existing recruitment sources.

Two questions are crucial in terms of the impact of these training programs on women. Who receives training and for what purpose are they trained? Women, by and large, occupy the lower paid and less prestigious positions within the Federal Government. A recent study of the status of women employees within the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare revealed that the median grade level for men throughout HEW is 10.9, while the median level for women is 5.1. While the great majority of the employees below or at the GS–9 level (annual salary of $11,046) are women, the great majority of employees above that level are men. No women have a rating of GS–18, the highest career level, and only 6.9 percent of the employees at the GS–17 level are female.

Clearly, in order to serve the needs of women for professional advancement, a great deal of training effort would have to be concentrated on the GS–1 to GS–9 levels and that training would have to be incorporated within a career mobility system which coupled training completion with promotional opportunities.

The Bureau of Training of the Civil Service Commission annually submits a report which analyzes data

by a number of factors—"instances of participation," man-hours, level of training, sex and agency, to name a few. The most recent available report of the Commission is for fiscal year 1970. That report describes a 7.4-percent increase in training participation for women between fiscal years 1969 and 1970, while the male employees received 2 percent less training. Thirty-five percent of the female population received training in fiscal year 1970 as compared to 32 percent in fiscal year 1969, while the number of males decreased from 41 percent to 39 percent of their population over the same time period.

Although this increase obviously reflects some improvement in opportunities for women, the data are misleading without some close analysis of the kinds of training provided and the nature of the recipients. The Civil Service Commission also presents comparative data on training opportunities for men and women by grade level. For GS–1 to GS–4 levels, 47 percent of the men received training as compared with 31 percent of the women, and for GS–5 to GS–8 levels, 63.7 percent of the men received training as opposed to 37.8 percent of the women. For GS levels 9 to 12, the percentage of participation is nearly equal, and women in the GS–16 to GS–18 levels were trained at a percentage rate of 124.2 percent as opposed to a 53.3 percent of training for men at those levels. (The high percentage of training for female executives is partially attributed to the fact that the 13 female executives of HEW received "43 instances of training.")

A clear pattern appears to exist. For the lower grade levels which have a preponderance of women—and one could assume, where the greatest need for upward mobility exists—men receive the bulk of the training. For those grade levels which require demonstrated past achievement, women receive the bulk of the training. Given the skewed pattern of promotion within the Federal Government, one could assume that women at the GS–16 to GS–18 levels are exceptionally competent. Yet they, rather than the women who need opportunities for upward mobility, are the beneficiaries of unusually abundant training opportunities. Another fact is important. Only 5 percent of the 1,665 Federal employees participating in training of more than 120 days were women.

Although thorough analysis of the activities of the Bureau of Training is beyond the scope of this study, it should be noted that costs of training (excluding trainee salaries) were over $187 million in fiscal year 1970. Training, in other words, is a multimillion dollar Federal enterprise which has not yet met adequately the needs of the majority of women within the Federal Government.

EDUCATION LEGISLATION

Four pieces of legislation, in addition to the Education Amendments of 1972, have provisions which would permit the funding of activities related to the continuing education needs of mature women. Primary among these is Title I of the Higher Education Act which has as its primary purpose the amelioration of community problems by the use of university resources. Since the inception of this program in 1966, community problems have been defined to include issues of concern to mature women who either wanted to return to higher education or to employment. The program itself has never had an appropriation of more than $10 million, and since 1969, the appropriation has been $9.4 million. During 1967, $235,518 of the total was spent on programs specifically designed to serve women, and this figure has steadily decreased to a total of $121,920 in fiscal year 1971.

Thirty of the 59 programs funded since 1967 have involved some form of counseling for women. However, the variety in these programs and in the remaining 29 does not lend itself to easy generalization. Brief descriptions of some of the programs funded under this title convey some idea of the potential social impact of a more total Federal commitment to women's programs.

The University of Pennsylvania established a suburban action program at the Human Resources Center of the University. Suburban women are trained at the Center and then sent to five geographic areas to train other women to be interpreters of problems and encouragers of social change. A program at the University of Nebraska develops the capabilities of retired persons and housewives to serve in 155 community service agencies. The participants are given an orientation and 40 hours of instruction in the functions of the selected agency. A research center at Alverno College has been established to publish materials relating to sex discrimination and under-utilization of women and to develop conferences on women's studies.

EDUCATION PROFESSIONS DEVELOPMENT ACT

Enacted in 1967 as Title V of the Higher Education Act, EPDA reflected a growing concern for the manpower needs of the elementary and secondary schools; a decreasing emphasis on the doctorate, and a reevalu-

ation of the training of educational paraprofessionals. The result of the legislation was a series of programs that attempted to improve and increase the education personnel at all levels of educational activity.

Two sections of that act are relevant to the provision of continuing education opportunities for women. Under section 504, the Commissioner of Education "is authorized to make grants to or contracts with institutions of higher education . . . for the purpose of . . . (3) encouraging qualified persons to enter or reenter the field of teaching; (4) encouraging artists, craftsmen, artisans, scientists, and persons from other professions and vocations, and homemakers to undertake teaching or related assignments on a part-time basis or for temporary periods."

During fiscal year 1972, only $145,230 were granted to projects which would encourage homemakers to undertake teaching or related assignments on a part-time basis. Tulsa public schools received $120,509 to educate Indian housewives and artists and craftsmen to work in the schools as paraprofessionals and Washington Technical Institute received $24,721 to train volunteers to serve in the local school system. No projects were funded to encourage qualified persons to enter or return to the field of teaching.

Title V–E of EPDA funds Higher Education Personnel Fellowships which enable institutions of higher education to train administrators or educational specialists. Individuals then apply directly to institutions for fellowships, with awards at the discretion of the institution. In the first year of the program (1969–70) 47 percent of the fellowships were awarded to women, most of them in master's degree programs and few in the small number of doctoral programs provided.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT OF 1963

Passed in 1963 and later amended in 1968 in a fresh text, the VEA was intended to strengthen and improve the quality of vocational education and to expand the vocational education opportunities in the country.

Under part F of the amended Vocational Education Act of 1963, a State plan may include projects designed to "(c) prepare youths and adults in the dual role of homemaker and wage-earner." To a request for information on the magnitude of these programs and their success, the acting director of the Division of Vocational and Technical Education replied that in fiscal year 1971, approximately 590,000 adults were enrolled in consumer and homemaking classes, the majority of whom were women. Information was not available on the number of enrollees carrying dual responsibilities of homemaker-wage-earner, but in the courses offered, particular emphasis was given to the study of home management, consumer education, home improvement and relationships within the family. Responsibility for operation of these programs lies with the State Supervisors of home economics in the State Departments of Education.

Part C, section 132 of the Vocational Education Act provides funds for: (3) Experimental, developmental, and pilot programs and projects designed to test the effectiveness of research findings; (4) demonstration and dissemination projects; (5) new vocational curricula; and (6) projects in the development of new areas and occupations such as—(A) research and experimental projects designed to identify new careers in such fields as mental and physical health, crime prevention and correction, welfare, education, municipal services, child care, and recreation requiring less training than professional positions.

Congress has appropriated funds for this section in only two fiscal years. In fiscal year 1971, $17.5 million were available and in fiscal year 1972, $9 million were appropriated. Although the legislative language is general enough to permit funding of demonstration projects relevant to the needs of mature women—projects which develop ways of reducing sexual stereotypes of vocations, of assessing employer attitudes toward part-time employment and of encouraging the employment of mature women in professions listed in the legislation—only one project has been funded with any relevance to the concerns of women.

COOPERATIVE RESEARCH ACT

Enacted in 1954, the Cooperative Research Act was designed to give the Office of Education greater capability to undertake research relevant to its mission.

That act has similarly broad language which could permit the funding of research projects of interest to women. The Commissioner is authorized "to make grants to universities and colleges—for research, survey, and demonstrations in the field of education . . . and for the dissemination of information derived from educational research." In fiscal year 1972, $4 million were awarded in research grants under this act and $9 million in developmental grants. The Office of Education could not identify any funded projects of interest to women.

EDUCATION AMENDMENTS OF 1972

In one area—that of student assistance—the Higher Education Amendments to the Higher Education Act provide a clear response to the needs of mature women who are continuing their education. In the past, comparatively little Federal support has been available to part-time students, and women have been particularly hampered by this lack since family responsibilities often preclude full-time attendance as well as a commitment of financial resources for part-time study. The amendments open two sources of financial support to part-time students, economic opportunity grants, and the work-study program, with the specification that awards be prorated on the basis of number of hours of attendance. Two new programs, the basic opportunity grants and the State student incentive programs, will be open to part-time students and provide eligibility for students at accredited postsecondary vocational and proprietary schools.

The impact of other sections of the legislation on women's programs is inconclusive and will depend on the interpretation of legislative authority as expressed by Federal guidelines and may require activity on the part of advocates for these programs to bring their needs to the attention of Federal officials. Following is a discussion of some of the sections in the law which may prove to be a source of Federal support for continuing education programs for women.

A key section in the new legislation is section 404 of Title III which authorizes support for improvement of postsecondary education. Intended to finance the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education, this section provides funds for a wide variety of purposes which encourage new approaches to education and the development of ways to serve groups which have not been reached by traditional methods. Section 404 reads as follows:

> *The Secretary is authorized to make grants to, and contracts with, institutions of postsecondary education . . . to improve postsecondary educational opportunities by providing assistance to such educational institutions and agencies for—*
>
> *(1) encouraging the reform, innovation, and improvement of postsecondary education and providing equal educational opportunity for all;*
>
> *(2) the creation of institutions and programs involving new paths to career and professional training, and new combinations of academic and experimental learning;*
>
> *(3) the establishment of institutions and programs based on the Technology of Communications;*
>
> *(4) the carrying out in post-secondary educational institutions of changes in internal structure and operations designed to clarify institutional priorities and purposes;*
>
> *(5) the design and introduction of cost effective methods of instruction and operation;*
>
> *(6) the introduction of institutional reforms designed to expand individual opportunities for entering and reentering institutions and pursuing programs of study tailored to individual needs;*
>
> *(7) the introduction of reforms in graduate education, in the structure of academic professions, and in the recruitment and retention of faculties; and*
>
> *(8) the creation of new institutions and programs for examining and awarding credentials to individuals, and the introduction of reforms in current institutional practices related thereto.*

The majority of the priorities listed in the legislation have direct bearing on the aims and methodology of women's programs. Clearly, the provision of equal educational opportunities for all will require special institutional arrangements and institutional reforms which acknowledge the unique difficulties of adults who have not followed the traditional patterns of higher education. They will require a reexamination of the kinds of learning which can be accredited and of the view that the validity of college credits is lost after a given time period.

Another area in which the interests of women should be reflected is that of the expansion of the services of community colleges. Community colleges are increasingly the vehicle which serves the needs of people for whom traditional patterns of education are inappropriate, and many of them have already begun to develop women's programs. Section 1014 authorizes expansion grants for these colleges with the following language: "The Commissioner is authorized to make grants to community colleges to assist them in altering or modifying their educational programs in order that they may (a) more adequately meet the needs, interests and potential benefits of the communities they serve, or (b) provide educational programs especially suited to the needs of the educationally disadvantaged persons residing in such communities."

These grants are authorized by Title X of the Act, Community Colleges and Occupational Education, which also provides for the development of a statewide plan which would, "achieve the goal of making avail-

able to all residents of the State an opportunity to attend a Community College. . . ." Related to this aim is a provision that each State establish a Commission representative of various institutions of higher education in the State which may appoint committees or task forces. That Commission is eligible to receive grants which will enable it to undertake inventories and studies with respect to post-secondary educational resources in the State. The ultimate aim of such studies would be improved planning which would permit all persons within the State who desire and who can benefit from post-secondary education an opportunity to do so.

A mandate clearly exists for studies which would assess the availability and the appropriateness of educational resources for women. Crucial in the implementation of these sections will be an interpretation of educationally disadvantaged which acknowledges that mature women face unique obstacles in their pursuit of higher education and an involvement of groups representing women in the work of State Commissions.

Section 140(a) authorizes the establishment of a National Commission on the Financing of Post-Secondary Education with funding authorization of $1.5 million. The Commission consists of two members of the Senate, two members of the House, and up to 13 members appointed by the President.

Although the focus of the Commission will be on an analysis of the reasons for the financial difficulties of institutions of post-secondary education and on the development of effective means of Federal and local support, the legislative language specifies that approaches to financing should be considered in light of "the extent to which each (method) would advance the national goal of making post-secondary education available to all individuals, including returning veterans, having the desire and ability to continue their education."

Again, the effect of this study on increasing educational opportunity for mature women will depend upon the extent to which the views of practitioners and clients of women's programs are brought to the attention of the Commission and its staff. Persons who have been actively involved in the development of new opportunities for women acknowledge that traditional forms of student assistance may not be adequate to the goal of making post-secondary education accessible to all individuals. Just one example of the particular problems of women is their extreme reluctance to accept loans to finance their education because of the drain on family financial resources and their lack of confidence about their own future earning power.

Language in Title III, section 304 of the law which is designed to assist developing institutions is similar to that concerning community colleges in that an appropriate interpretation would permit increased support for women's programs. Section 304 specifies that: "Funds . . . should be available for: (c) introduction of new curricula and curricular materials; and (d) development and operation of Cooperative Education programs involving alternate periods of academic study and business or public employment."

Section 417(b) is only peripherally related to women's programs, but some of the provisions of the section would appear to allow funding for supportive services for women, at least for low income women. A problem is that the introductory language to the section specifically refers to youths from low-income families, but there is repeated emphasis placed throughout the section on college dropouts and persons resuming their college education.

The aim of the section is to encourage secondary-school or college dropouts of demonstrated aptitude to reenter educational programs, including post-secondary programs. The section provides both for special services for disadvantaged students while they are enrolled at recipient institutions and for the establishment of educational opportunity centers in areas with major concentrations of low-income populations. Those centers will provide assistance in filling out applications for admission and for financial assistance and counseling and tutoring services after admission.

Finally, the bill authorizes the establishment of a National Institute of Education which is to be independent of the Office of Education and to concern itself with the conduct and dissemination of educational research. Given its broad mandate it would appear that a wide range of research activities relevant to mature women could be funded through the institute.

CONCLUSIONS

In writing this chapter, we assumed that Federal responses to the needs of women for university-level continuing education had been minimal. That assumption has been confirmed. What surprised us was the availability of resources both in terms of legislative authority and funds, which could be used to expand existing programs, develop more supportive services and provide a necessary research base. Two obvious examples are the Cooperative Extension Service and the training activities funded through the Civil Service Commission. Currently over $6.4 million in Federal

and local funds are being spent on educational programs which enhance a woman's capability as a homemaker, while perhaps $500,000 in Federal funds are being spent for college credit-granting programs. This imbalance is serious in light of the fact that half of all women aged 34 to 64 are in the labor force.

The potential of the Education Amendments of 1972 to serve women is great. We have identified some of the ways this service could be accomplished. Opportunities for a more substantial commitment to women have, however, been missed in the past. Our hope is that the Federal Government and women, working together, will use this new legislation as the vehicle which will finally validate this country's commitment to the provision of educational opportunities for all its people. □

UNEMPLOYED SCIENTISTS AND ENGINEERS

THE PROBLEM

Beginning in 1970, major Federal cutbacks in spending for space and defense research produced severe employment reductions in aero-space, electronics, and various defense-related industries. For the first time since the 1930's, this country experienced the problem of the educated unemployed.

The chairman of the National Society for Professional Engineers estimates that in late 1971, for instance, there were up to 120,000 unemployed scientists and engineers who previously were employed in space and defense-related industries. This high unemployment rate is particularly critical because employed engineers generate many supporting jobs and therefore have a multiplier affect on the national economy.

THE RESPONSE

In April of 1971, the White House announced a massive Federal response to this national crisis. Using currently existing legislation and $42 million appropriated under the Manpower Development and Training Act, the Technology Mobilization and Reemployment Program (TMRP) was established. Administered by the Department of Labor, TMRP operates five activities. Those activities and funds allocated are:

1. Job promotional efforts involving a new emphasis on professional employment services available through State Employment Service suboffices newly established in each of 14 geographic target areas. (Existing funds used.)

2. Job-search grants for individuals who need them to explore specific job opportunities outside their home areas—$5 million.

3. Relocation grants for individuals who need them to accept job offers outside their home areas—$10 million.

4. On-the-job training and short-term academic courses where such training is a condition of a job offer—$25 million.

5. Skill-conversion studies to find out how to redeploy technical talent to occupational areas outside defense and aerospace—$2 million.

TRMP focuses on 14 geographic areas, each of which has over 1,000 unemployed engineers, scientists, and technicians or over 500 unemployed professionals and an overall unemployment rate of over 6 percent. Eligibility requirements ensure that participants have previously been employed in space or defense-related industries and have thoroughly canvassed all employment opportunities and have not refused reasonable suitable job referrals within their home area.

The key areas of job development and identification are the responsibility of the Department of Labor's Regional Manpower Administrators working cooperatively with the directors of the State Employment Services (SES). The SES has established suboffices in each target area. These offices are specifically designed to serve professional people by registering applicants, providing program orientation, establishing applicant eligibility, and providing job search facilities to applicants.

These suboffices are also responsible for developing jobs locally, providing labor market data to enable the applicant to begin his own job search, locating jobs outside the local area, and insuring that the applicant is listed in the National Registry for Engineers.

TARDY BEGINNINGS

Ten months after this initial announcement of TRMP, approximately $16 million of the $21 million allocated for the first year of operation were expended. At the end of November 1971, 8 months after pro-

gram initiation, only 2,864 persons had been placed in jobs or enrolled in training. Opportunities for institutional training were particularly scant. Only 619 of those eligible were enrolled in such programs and an additional 43 persons were enrolled in programs which combined on-the-job training and institutional training. While this record has improved during the past year, its slow beginnings during the time of most critical need sapped its vitality and impact.

Several facts account for this tardy response to an immediate need. (1) The Department of Labor has relied on a combination of currently existing programs, personnel, and administrative structures to meet a radically new manpower problem. Special strategies, persuasive skills, and retraining programs are required to solve the problems of the unemployed professional, but the critical areas of job identification and development have been the responsibility of SES staff who were unaccustomed to handling problems involved in determining how skill transfer might occur and in persuading potential employers to redesign jobs in professional fields. (2) The Department of Labor has a healthy reluctance to commit funds for retraining unless there are assurances that jobs will be available at the end of the training process. However, only one organization has been funded to identify potential jobs and to develop, in cooperation with universities, appropriate retraining programs. That organization ceased to exist at the end of March 1972. Neither the university nor the individual has the resources to explore many potentially fruitful sources of employment and to develop training programs. The result was that Federal funds were unexpended and large numbers of engineers remained unemployed. (3) This reluctance of the Department of Labor to commit funds for training without firm assurances of jobs results from experience with a number of different programs which provided retraining for unemployed engineers only to produce engineers who were unemployed with a higher level of training. (4) The creation of the current surplus of engineers and scientists was partly due to the active collaboration of the academic community and the Federal Government as a reaction to Sputnik. During the 1960's, universities produced these professionals to meet immediate Federal priorities and little thought apparently was given to long-range employment prospects. Those same universities, largely because of a lack of resources, have generally not taken aggressive initiative to respond to the needs of their former graduates with appropriate retraining programs.

Essentially, programs of retraining for highly educated specialists simply do not exist as a regular feature of higher education. When major layoffs of scientists and engineers occurred, there were no ready-made programs which could serve their needs. A few universities undertook to develop responsive continuing education programs, but in the main, the task of retooling a university to cope with this kind of a new demand simply frustrated efforts at a timely response. While the continuing educators have rightfully prided themselves for their sense of social service and their ability to move quickly and flexibly into new and uncharted activities, in this case they were largely unable to sway the science departments and engineering schools to change directions and course offerings to meet the needs of an immediate and important social problem. □

COLLEGE LEVEL PROGRAMS FOR PRISONERS

INTRODUCTION

Attention is increasingly being focused on the importance of providing educational opportunities for prisoners. This emphasis is a part of a larger concern with the development of ways which will enable prisons to become more effective in their stated purpose of rehabilitation. Prisons have been described as "universities of crime" in which inmates are offered more opportunities to perfect their criminal skills than to develop vocational and personal abilities which would enable them to cope successfully within American society. *Although no accurate figures exist concerning recidivism, estimates have been made that as many as 60 percent of former offenders are returned to prison because of additional crimes, and that 80 percent of all crimes are committed by former offenders.*

One reason for this high rate of recidivism is that incarceration tends to decrease an individual's ability to find legitimate ways of earning a living. After his release, a former prisoner faces severe problems and has limited personal and vocational resources with which to solve them. He has been accustomed to a highly regulated life in which he has had few opportunities to make personal decisions or plans. His past ties with family and community may have been broken, and possibilities for employment are limited because of the social stigma attached to a prison sentence.

While it could be said that prisons have not been uniformly successful in providing appropriate rehabilitation programs for anyone, the inmate who could profit from college-level courses has in the past been particularly neglected. One reason for this is that such an inmate is atypical in terms of the general prison population. In 1966, only 1.1 percent of the prison population (Federal and State felony inmates) had completed four years or more of college and 4.2 percent had completed one to three years. The percentage of this population completing high school was 12.4, producing a total of 17.7 percent of the group who were eligible for college-level courses. It is significant that the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, which issued the prestigious report, "The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society," noted that the opportunity for bringing the resources of nearby universities into correctional institutions had been largely unexploited.

STATUS OF CURRENT EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

A necessary first step to the expansion of existing college-level programs for prisoners is the collection of accurate data on currently existing efforts, some assessment of the validity of various educational approaches and an updating of the data concerning eligibility of inmates. In 1967, as a result of his experience with an experimental college project at San Quentin, Stuart Adams (California State Department of Corrections) sent letters and questionnaires to correctional education supervisors and directors of correction in all 50 States and the U.S. Bureau of Prisons. His purpose was to determine: on-going college-level instruction, if any; date of inauguration of program; participating colleges and universities; methods of funding; number of students; criteria for selection of students; kinds of courses offered; objectives of the program and impressions as to the effects of the program on students and on the prison generally.

Of the 46 responding prison systems, 27 had established programs of correspondence courses, seven had programs of live instruction, three offered instruction via television, and three institutions had college furlough programs. In terms of numbers of students served, the relationship between correspondence courses and live instruction was reversed. Over 1,700 students received live instruction; 771 students were

enrolled in correspondence course programs and only 113 and 10 students respectively were enrolled in programs through TV courses and college furlough. Dr. Adams concluded that since correspondence courses were established at rates which peaked before 1965, live instruction is likely to out-distance correspondence work much more conspicuously in the future than it has up to now.

Funding arrangements for these programs reflect the tentative commitment made to them by the Federal Government and by society as a whole. No consistent policy governs who should pay for the programs. In most cases, the inmate pays all costs. Other methods of support are the Department of Corrections, the State Department of Vocational Rehabilitation, and contribution of courses by the State University. In the three largest correspondence course programs, the methods of funding are as follows: (1) The inmate pays a fee of $1 and the institution buys the books; (2) the inmate pays a $2 postage fee and the university provides the courses free of charge; (3) the costs are assumed by the Division of Corrections and the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation. Methods of funding live instruction courses are similarly varied, although they are funded more completely by the institution or by the State than is true for correspondence courses.

Adams concludes his study with a prediction that college-level courses will increase but he is concerned about the apparent lack of concern about evaluation. He visualizes two serious problems if such assessment does not become incorporated within higher education programs in prisons: (1) Aspirations or expectations might be unrealistically heightened and the end result would be a worsened adjustment in the outside community; (2) the outcome of the process of higher education might be unrewarding in either a rehabilitation or a cost-effectiveness sense.

PROJECT NEWGATE—AN EXPERIMENTAL APPROACH TO COLLEGE-LEVEL PROGRAMS

Project NewGate began as a demonstration program funded through the Office of Economic Opportunity. A primary purpose of the project was to determine whether the availability of college-level instruction combined with counseling and field work followup would be of substantial value in the rehabilitation efforts for prisoners. The program is unique both in its use of academic and intellectual potential as the primary criteria for selection and in its heavy emphasis on counseling and placement as necessary components to educational programs.

The University of Kentucky's project NewGate, one of six federally-funded demonstration projects, provides two 15-week regular sessions and a 10-week summer session during which a variety of academic counseling and related activities are scheduled. Various counseling techniques are employed by the staff in an attempt to bring to the individual an awareness of his capabilities. A comprehensive release plan is established several months prior to the parole date. This plan includes admission to an appropriate school, housing, and the permission of the local probation officer operating in that district.

Although further research will be required to determine the impact of project NewGate on the individual over a substantial period of his life, short-range goals are obvious. Kentucky's project NewGate has a recidivism rate of 7 percent and a NewGate project in Oregon has had only five new convictions from 136 releases. Even in financial terms, the project has made important gains. The lifetime of an average felon will cost the taxpayer $100,000.

The success of project NewGate has led to a subsequent program, also funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity. Funds have been granted to the National Council on Crime and Delinquency to establish a NewGate Resource Center which will give technical assistance to States interested in developing their own NewGate projects. The resource center will also compile information on other college-level programs and is involved in comparative evaluation of these efforts.

ADMISSIONS PRACTICES FOR PAROLEES

The directors of the Kentucky NewGate project had a particularly difficult task in terms of inmate placement. The program operated out of a Federal institution which had inmates from all over the country who would return to a variety of States. Instead of dealing with a single university, the 109 releasees have been admitted to a total of 98 different schools. This problem led the staff to develop a questionnaire which would enable them to place students. Although there was only a 32 percent response rate from the 2,193 institutions of higher education to which questionnaires were sent, significant patterns did appear. Over half of the schools responding (53 percent) indicated that the past criminal record of an applicant was a major factor in regards to his admission, while 82 percent indicated that the existence of a past criminal record did not automatically disqualify an appli-

cant. The data also indicated a much more responsive attitude from universities and two-year colleges than from the four-year colleges.

SUMMARY

Most educational programs for prisoners are targeted toward the educational and skill level of inmates; hence only a small percentage of the total activity is at the post-secondary level. Increasingly, however, correctional institutions and institutions of higher education are experimenting with a variety of approaches toward higher continuing education for inmates. The Bureau of Prisons, the Office of Education, and other Federal agencies have provided both encouragement and funds to increase and improve opportunities for post-secondary work. The current situation, therefore, is one of growth; however, to the extent that the major focus of prison education must continue to center on vocational and basic education, higher continuing educational efforts are likely to serve only a small part of the prison population. At the same time, this segment of that population may well be the one for which the best chances of rehabilitation through education do exist. □

EDUCATION AND TRAINING FOR FEDERAL EMPLOYEES

Prior to 1958, few Federal agencies had clear statutory authority to carry on programs of education and training for their employees. The Defense agencies, which had such authority, were actively engaged in training; many of the civilian agencies were "bootlegging" training to their employees and otherwise seeking to circumvent restrictive Comptroller General decisions relating to expenditures for training.

Some agencies had authority to pay tuition costs for continuing education programs at colleges and universities; others required their employees to assume these costs as a personal expense. In some instances, agencies were able to siphon off general purpose funds to underwrite training activities, in other cases they had no authority to pay travel and per diem costs associated with attendance at a training session. The regulations, policies and practices governing training varied widely between one agency and another and each agency operated its training activities in isolation from what was occurring in the rest of the Federal Government.

GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES TRAINING ACT

This situation changed fundamentally in 1958 with the enactment of the Government Employees Training Act. This statute authorized and encouraged training activity throughout the Federal service, established a national policy for the training of Government employees and made the U.S. Civil Service Commission responsible for monitoring and coordinating training efforts for the Federal Civil Service. Since 1958, and particularly since March 1960 when the Civil Service Commission's Office of Career Development [1] was established, the training activities of the Government have evidenced both growth and improvement.

[1] Now the Bureau of Training.

DIMENSIONS

During fiscal year 1971, there were 967,619 recorded *instances* [2] of training (see table 3). The direct, specifically identifiable cost of this training exceeded $200 million, and over 7,000 full-time personnel are employed within the Federal Government's total training establishment. Some 120 off-campus study centers have been established in cooperation with colleges and universities to meet the continuing education needs of Government employees within the United States and overseas, together with some eighty-three agency training centers which are operated directly by the Federal Government. No accurate figures on salary costs of trainees during training are available, but the total of these costs probably approximates $2 billion a year.

The scope of training activity is great, ranging from short orientation courses for new employees to full-time graduate study at major universities. Roughly 74 percent of all trainees attended training programs conducted by their own agencies, 9 percent attended training programs offered by a Federal agency other than their employing organization, and 17 percent attended nongovernment training and educational programs. One of the most constructive efforts by the Civil Service Commission was to encourage Federal agencies to admit to their training programs the employees of other agencies, thereby avoiding duplication of effort and achieving reduced training costs.

COMPARISONS AND CONTRASTS

Sharp differences are apparent between the education and training efforts for Government employees and those made available to the broader public under

[2] An "instance" of training is recorded as attendance by an employee in a formal classroom training program of eight hours duration or longer.

ann agency—73——6

Table 3.—Employee participation in training by agency and fiscal year

Agency	Fiscal year					Percent change between	
	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1970–71	1967–71
Total	933, 457	924, 294	931, 971	907, 969	967, 619	+6. 6	+3. 7
Total nondefense	406, 153	402, 784	413, 520	447, 046	548, 572	+22. 7	+35. 0
Agriculture	57, 996	62, 955	66, 736	83, 438	91, 663	+9. 9	+58. 1
Commerce	9, 974	11, 277	14, 601	15, 680	21, 314	+35. 9	+113. 7
Defense	527, 304	521, 510	518, 451	460, 923	419, 047	−9. 1	−20. 5
Army	(204, 599)	(172, 773)	(192, 603)	(175, 164)	(186, 165)	+6. 2	−9. 0
Navy	(140, 876)	(172, 821)	(163, 372)	(136, 675)	(95, 966)	−29. 8	−31. 9
Air Force	(145, 069)	(122, 688)	(112, 800)	(104, 059)	(93, 452)	−10. 2	−35. 6
Other defense	(36, 760)	(53, 228)	(49, 676)	(45, 025)	(43, 464)	−3. 6	+18. 2
HEW	37, 955	72, 553	35, 760	41, 456	49, 698	+19. 9	+30. 9
HUD	4, 311	8, 311	3, 400	3, 629	7, 090	+95. 3	+64. 5
Interior	48, 327	47, 168	43, 060	36, 142	48, 288	+33. 6	−0. 1
Justice	13, 327	15, 324	15, 914	21, 048	29, 899	+42. 1	+210. 1
Labor	4, 590	8, 858	6, 006	6, 628	8, 264	+24. 7	+80. 0
State (including AID)	2, 694	1, 566	5, 271	3, 296	5, 017	+52. 2	+86. 2
Transportation	36, 053	33, 107	23, 931	32, 864	39, 880	+21. 3	+10. 6
Treasury	66, 231	38, 813	73, 465	71, 291	97, 957	+37. 4	+47. 9
AEC	9, 485	3, 673	3, 387	2, 904	3, 404	+17. 2	−64. 1
CSC	1, 352	987	1, 084	1, 770	2, 944	+66. 3	+117. 8
District of Columbia Government	8, 322	16, 807	16, 454	21, 493	25, 806	+20. 1	+310. 1
EPA					1, 311		
GAO	1, 281	2, 374	2, 165	2, 031	4, 501	+121. 6	+251. 4
GPO		930	698	872	1, 395	+60. 0	
GSA	8, 216	12, 409	11, 828	17, 848	20, 295	+13. 7	+147. 0
Library of Congress	504	756	935	1, 105	1, 538	+38. 2	+205. 2
NASA	32, 629	23, 192	21, 635	23, 217	22, 322	−3. 9	−31. 6
OEO					2, 335		
Panama Canal	12, 112	7, 868	6, 472	5, 498	5, 050	−8. 1	−58. 3
Selective Service	1, 651	3, 977	5, 707	4, 461	2, 062	−53. 8	+24. 9
SBA	4, 051	2, 970	2, 420	1, 816	1, 378	−24. 1	−66. 0
VA	40, 189	38, 605	43, 338	41, 785	49, 847	−19. 3	+24. 0
All others	4, 135	6, 854	7, 618	7, 646	5, 314	−30. 5	+28. 5

Source: U.S. Civil Service Commission.

the various grants programs cited in this report. *Training of Government employees is conducted under a comprehensive and effective statement of national policy, contained in the Government Employees Training Act. No statement of national policy governs continuing education for the public.* A single, flexible statute authorizes a wide range of Government employee training; literally hundreds of special purposes statutes govern programs of continuing education. One agency, the Civil Service Commission, has oversight and coordinating responsibility; no agency or combination of agencies oversees or monitors the sprawling continuing education efforts of the Federal Government. Universities engaged in public service training have a central point of initial contact in the Civil Service Commission; there is no single, initial point of contact for universities engaged in extension, continuing education and community service.

In addition, the Civil Service Commission serves as a central reporting source to Congress and to the President with respect to training of Government employees, and in reverse the Commission acts as the agent of Congress and the President in ensuring responsiveness to policy changes and priorities. By contrast, no single agency of Government can speak for all of continuing education or can influence the entire effort on behalf of Congress and the President.

In sum, Government training efforts are established, organized and operated within a known and manageable framework of policy. While each agency has great latitude in the training of its own employees, what is done can more easily be made part of a rational, government-wide effort because of the oversight and coordinating role of the Civil Service Commission, and adherence to a common national policy.

USEFULNESS OF THE MODEL

A recurrent and valid criticism of the Federal effort in continuing education is its untidy and inefficient sprawl. Many agencies, under separate laws, without central direction or even unifying policies, are busy working in mutual isolation: often seeking to serve the same clients or similar program purposes. The remedy selected when similar problems beset training of Government employees was to enact one basic law authorizing training, establishing national policy and placing responsibility on a single agency to oversee, foster, and report on the total effort.

Obviously, there was much resistance to such a solution. The Defense agencies, in particular, were loath to lose their specific enabling legislation in favor of a broad legal charter applicable to all agencies. The dangers of overcentralization through giving key new responsibilities to the Civil Service Commission were also raised as objections. In actual practice, however, the abrasions have been minimal and the advantages have proven significant. Occasional dissatisfaction still results over ways in which the Civil Service Commission bills agencies for participation in its own courses and charges are sometimes made that the Commission gives preferences and priorities to its own interagency training efforts at the expense of internal agency training programs. For the most part, however, there is no pressure to return to the past; the principle of a single law, basic policy and central coordinating agency has been accepted.

Given this example, the question as to whether a similar solution can be applied to programs of Federal support for continuing education naturally arises. Clearly, when the only clientele served is the Government employee, the problem is much simpler and more susceptible to solution. At the same time, the Civil Service Commission before 1958 already had extensive coordinating authority over the Federal personnel system, so that addition of new responsibilities in training was not a revolutionary departure from the past. Certainly, this step was more incremental than if the Office of Education were suddenly assigned responsibility over all educational and university-related programs within the Federal Government.

This model, however, essentially remains instructive. Some order has been given to a dispersed and chaotic educational effort and the effects have basically been constructive and beneficial. □

CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR TEACHERS IN ADULT AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

In the chapter "Unemployed Scientists and Engineers," we attempted to highlight the acute nature of the job shortages confronting a large number of Americans who had in most instances received extensive undergraduate and professional training. The issues which adult and vocational educators confront, however, are more usually problems not of acute but of *chronic* unemployment and underemployment due to serious educational deficiencies.

FEDERAL RESPONSE

The Federal response to this chronic situation is evident in a number of disjointed activities throughout the executive agencies, but it is most clearly perceived in those programs enacted by the Vocational Education Act of 1963, as amended; the Adult Education Act of 1966, as amended; and the Education Professions Development Act of 1967, all of which are administered through the Office of Education's Bureau of Adult, Vocational and Technical Education and the Bureau of Educational Personnel Development.

Much of this legislation is intended to benefit students directly, whether they be illiterate adults in need of basic learning tools, or adolescents and young adults who need, first, skills and trades to provide entry into the job market and, second, opportunities to advance their trades and occupations.

To provide these services and educational opportunities, it is implicit in this legislation that funds be made available to train and retrain individuals as adult and vocational educators. These individuals are currently being recruited from the broadest possible base of manpower resources, with special emphasis on recruiting individuals from within the very trades and occupations which they are expected to teach. Largely because of these recruitment policies, major consideration is given to the demonstrated competency of an individual to teach his subject, and not to whatever credential he may have earned which entitles him to teach.

In recognition of this emphasis, much of the training for adult and vocational educators is being provided through cooperative efforts among institutions of higher education, local education agencies and local industries and businesses. This practice has its own obvious benefits for career-oriented educational programs, but it also reflects the growing inclination among many educators, and certainly the Office of Education, to view training programs for teachers not as discrete activities but as activities to be related closely to other valid learning experiences.

TEACHER RECRUITMENT

In vocational education, in particular, potential teachers are recruited from the various occupations and are given supplementary training at an appropriate educational institution in a pattern that is reminiscent of the work-study approach to learning. Within adult education too—where there has occasionally been a tendency to restrict the training of adult educators to within the adult education profession—*there is now general recognition of the validity of work experiences as a substitute for credentials as a qualification to educate adults.* Concurrent with this recognition is an effort to have educational institutions and agencies accredit job-related educational learning experience, much in the way that these same institutions and agencies accredit military experiences.

This principle is most clearly expressed in the amount of in-service training that is being provided to adult and vocational teachers, administrators and counselors. It is estimated, for instance, that in fiscal year 1971,

$26 million was generated by the Vocational Education Act's State-grant program to provide for teacher training, with 40 percent of this sum being provided by the Federal Government and the remainder through matching requirements. Sixty percent of those enrolled in training programs through this single activity were enrolled in in-service training. It is estimated, however, that more funds were actually used for preservice training because of the special requirements in preservice training to develop more substantial curricula, hire full-time faculty and train individuals for longer durations.

STATE GRANTS

Most Federal funds for adult and vocational education are distributed through State-grant programs. This has been historically true of vocational educational activities and has led in part to strong State commitments to vocational education. (This commitment stems also from those State laws that make compulsory the education of those normally serviced from the 9th through 12th grades of the secondary school.) This has not been equally true of adult education; only a handful of States have demonstrated an interest in establishing statewide programs of adult education.

Because of the distribution of Federal funds in this manner, the responsibility to design and implement adult and vocational training programs rests heavily with State and local agencies. Priorities and objectives emanate primarily from that level, and not from the Federal level. This practice is further supported by the growing determination at the national level to regionalize many educational and social welfare programs. This determination has broadly affected those adult and vocational education programs that were not already being distributed through the State-grant mechanism.

STATE BOARDS AND COUNCILS

The Vocational Education Act provides for the establishment of State Boards of Vocational Education and for the establishment of State Advisory Councils on Vocational Education. *The funding and implementation of these State boards and advisory councils give to vocational education the kind of structural visibility that is often absent on a statewide basis for adult education.* This structural visability has been decisive in helping vocational educators identify their clientele and in formulating effective programs for them. There is a further advantage: the exposure vocational education receives at State and local levels helps to provide it with a strong base from which to generate support—both educational and political—for its activities.

The Adult Education Act makes no such provision for State boards and advisory councils, although States clearly have the latitude to establish them if they so desire, as many have. In some instances, the State Board of Vocational Education may serve as the chief point of contact for other federally funded adult education programs. One instance of this is a program sponsored by the Bureau of Educational Personnel Development to provide industry-related experiences to teachers in trades and industries. Its funds are distributed directly to these State boards.

In short, adult education—and extension and continuing education for that matter—does not have the kind of State and local organizational visibility that is available to vocational education. Without this network, it is severely disadvantaged in promoting its own activities and attracting State and local support for its programs and teacher training efforts.

Another program that operates through the State-grant mechanism is the Bureau of Educational Personnel Development's Career Opportunities Program (COP). This is essentially an adult education program designed to attract inner-city residents and veterans into the teaching profession, with a particular objective—not always achieved—that they eventually become full-time teachers for the inner city schools. Recruitment is heaviest among the ethnic minorities. COP funds help them continue their own education while at the same time they gain related experience by working part-time in these schools. (The Council's Sixth Annual Report's chapter entitled "The Federal Government and the Training of Teachers and Educational Personnel," page 65, discusses this program at length.)

In the case of COP, what is there explicit is elsewhere in many of these programs implicit: that teachers be attracted to adult and vocational education who will reflect the socio-economic, handicapped, and ethnic composition of those who are intended, in part, to benefit from these federally-supported programs. Generally, however, the laws authorizing adult and vocational education programs do not compel State and local agencies to reflect in their own activities whatever priorities may exist at the Federal level.

STATE PLANS

What the laws do require are State plans for adult and vocational education. Without such plans, States are ineligible for funding. In the case of vocational education, the presence at many levels of Federal, State, and local government of agencies and individuals committed to vocational education enhances greatly the likelihood that State plans will reflect sound objectives and programs, and that these objectives and programs will be tested constantly to keep them updated. State plans for adult education provide no such similar guarantee. Despite this, the manpower limitations of the Office of Education disallow regular evaluations of State plans; in most cases, these State plans receive only cursory monitoring.

The need for reliable planning and evaluation of the teaching needs for adult and vocational education is particularly crucial in light of the general opinion that there is a teacher surplus throughout the nation. Whether this surplus is restricted to the regular teaching needs of universities and the schools, or whether it extends in some instances to adult and vocational teachers, is not always clear. It is assumed by many that it does not; rather, it is assumed that part of that surplus can be effectively utilized by retraining individuals for second careers in adult and vocational education, thus enlarging the demands for continuing education and strengthening the willingness and capacity of institutions of higher education to cooperate in undertaking such responsibilities. □

COMMENTS ON TITLE I, FISCAL YEAR 1972

EVALUATION OF TITLE I

In our report last year, we indicated that Title I funds were fragmented into hundreds of small project grants. This essentially means that these funds are used for projects of short duration or limited objectives. Although the sum total of these scattered projects reveals many successful efforts, we noted that the vast number of project activities and of institutions and communities involved makes ". . . systematic evaluation of Title I activities virtually impossible, unless a major effort for this purpose is organized and funded."

In response to this need for thorough evaluation, section 103 of the Education Amendments Act of 1972 assigned this council responsibility for undertaking a thorough review of programs and projects funded under Title I. This will ascertain the specific achievements of Title I projects, but more importantly—because of the broad scope of Title I projects—it will assess the extensive role of universities in community service. In addition, this evaluation will seek to ascertain how and in what ways the general extension network can best respond to community needs. As a result, the learnings which will emerge from this evaluation should far transcend specific relationships to Title I as a discrete program, and produce—for the first time—a consolidated base of valid evidence about university involvement in community service across the entire range of social needs: transportation, crime, housing, poverty, drug abuse, environmental degradation, and many more.

REGIONAL AND NATIONAL PROGRAMS

Our council previously recommended modification in Title I legislation to enable the Commissioner of Education to reserve up to 10 percent of the funds appropriated for grants and contracts addressed to problems of national and regional concern. Section 106 of the Education Amendments Act of 1972 gave effect to this recommendation. Assuming that funds appropriated for Title I will be released and available for this purpose, an important new dimension will be added to Title I efforts. This council expects to remain in close contact with the Office of Education regarding further developments and stands ready to assist further in giving this new dimension of Title I practical effect.

PROJECT ACTIVITY AND PROGRAM DEVELOPMENTS

Following is a report submitted to the council by the Office of Education on its community service and continuing education programs, operated under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. This report covers Title I activities for fiscal year 1972. (See appendix B.) □

Appendix B

A REPORT
ON THE COMMUNITY SERVICE
AND CONTINUING EDUCATION PROGRAMS
(TITLE I, HIGHER EDUCATION ACT OF 1965)
FISCAL YEAR 1972

TO

THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COUNCIL ON
EXTENSION AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

10/77

A Report on Community Service and Continuing Education Programs (under Title I, Higher Education Act of 1965) Fiscal Year 1972

Colleges and communities through community service and continuing education programs are implementing the concept of education as a continuing, life-long and dynamic process through which adults can lead more meaningful and useful lives and through which concerned communities can improve their functioning.

HIGHLIGHTS

More than 317,000 adults participated in the 576 community service and continuing education projects completed during fiscal year 1972. . . . The projects were staffed by 3,051 faculty members, many devoting more than half of their time to the activity. . . . Over 11,000 undergraduate and graduate students, working as technical assistants, interns and researchers, served as resource personnel. . . . One hundred and twenty-four off-campus learning centers enabled many adults to continue their education at convenient times and locations. . . . Institutional participation reached a new high as 572 colleges and universities became involved in community education projects supported by Title I, HEA. . . . As of June 30, 1972 1074 institutions of higher education, 40 percent of those eligible, had participated in the community service and continuing education program since its inception in fiscal year 1966.

THE NATIONAL PURPOSE

The enabling legislation, Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 (Public Law 89-329), sets for the goal of the program as:

> . . . assisting the people of the United States in the solution of community problems . . . by making grants to strengthen community service programs of colleges and universities.

This program, therefore, aids colleges and communities in the development of educational activities for adults that match higher education resources with national problems—social, economic, or political—as these problems are manifest in American communities.

Thus, the community service and continuing education program continues to explore and demonstrate new approaches to the educational needs of community problem solvers and those individuals most directly affected by such problems.

CONTINUING EDUCATION

Today, many individuals, institutions, and committees are engaged in redefining continuing education in relation to colleges and universities. New terms are being coined: open university, extended or external degrees, and university without walls. These discussions may presage the necessary revolution in higher education. Concurrently, several hundred colleges and universities are finding new and better ways to focus their resources upon the life-long educational needs of adults in our society.

Following are some examples of innovative continuing education activities which are being supported under Title I of the Higher Education Act.

PARAPROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL

Presbyterian College in South Carolina has demonstrated a new approach to the training of paraprofessionals in mental retardation. This continuing education program was specially designed to increase the

number of workers for several agencies including a State residential institution for the mentally retarded.

This group of adults, 17 men and 33 women were selected as potentially effective personnel. While none had previous formal training in mental retardation, 40 of the 50 individuals are now fully competent to undertake new careers in their special area.

The 6-month training program included 165 hours of formal instruction and 840 hours of practicum experience (at the rate of 35 per week) in sheltered workshops, schools, and dormitory settings for the retarded. The project will be continued in fiscal year 1973 with Title I support.

This year 15 similar projects were begun in 10 States. These projects are directed to enhancing the knowledge and skills of individuals to fill paraprofessional roles in a variety of community serving agencies. The States project an enrollment of 5,000 persons in these projects.

MINORITY BUSINESSMEN

There are two prerequisites for participation in the mainstream of economic activity—an ability to generate capital and to develop acceptable managerial skills.

Indiana University at South Bend undertook a two-phase project to increase the knowledge and skill of Black businessmen in the community. Black students in the business school served as interview consultants in the first stage where 140 firms were served. Stage two employed both black and white instructors in workshop sessions—problem oriented—rather than formal classes. Throughout the project one-to-one technical assistance and support was given to enhance the workshop learnings. A direct result of the project is the formation of Minority Enterprise Small Business Investment Corp. (MESBIC) by 40 young business entrepreneurs, average age 30, mostly with formal high school education. In addition to providing needed knowledge and skills to a group of economically active young Black men, the project provided an added vector of force for upgrading the economy of South Bend. The tools and techniques employed are adaptable to other areas for similar purposes.

INMATES OF PENAL INSTITUTIONS

The need for improved rehabilitative measures in State prisons is a recently recognized national need. In a pioneering effort, Manchester Community College developed a program at Connecticut State Prison in order to reduce the recidivism rate. Two hundred men, more than half of whom were between the ages of 21 and 35, received college-level instruction and intensive counseling services. As a result of this project and with the support of the Connecticut Department of Corrections, the entire community college system (12 institutions) is actively engaged in prerelease education and training. Further cooperative efforts with the State's four technical institutes, project a program for further training of the prisoners as they are released.

Within the year similar programs were undertaken in five other States, Louisiana, Maine, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and North Carolina. An investment of $48,000 in Federal funds that provided incarcerated individuals with the opportunity to learn again and with the encouragement necessary for a return to more responsible roles in community life.

CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR WOMEN

Mature women in Iowa are being assisted to move outside traditionally feminine occupations through two related university projects. The University of Northern Iowa's program of Counseling Mature Women for Productive Employment served 386 women in individual counseling sessions, weekly group guidance sessions and conferences on Women in Industry.

For the already employed women, Drake University initiated a pioneering program of Management and Supervisory Training. The 102 women received 60 hours of classroom instruction and attended three intensive weekend workshops during the course of the year. The age of the participants ranged from the late twenties to the midforties. The majority were between 35 and 45 years of age and most had some formal higher education experience. Both participants and employers cite major contributions of the project as increased self-confidence and improved management capability.

These projects, taken together, illustrate the crucial role that higher education institutions are playing to assist women in preparing for positions of greater responsibility in business and in the community.

Comparable programs of continuing education for women are being conducted in Delaware, Maryland, Michigan, California, New Hampshire, Ohio, and Washington State. More than 4,000 women of all ages with varied economic and educational backgrounds are participating. These programs reflect the increased concern in higher education institutions for

those women who wish to play a more active role, professionally or otherwise, in the life of their communities.

In addition, a number of projects in the several States continue to serve those occupational groups that are traditionally viewed as feminine—nursing, teaching, secretarial, and retail sales.

VOLUNTEERS

At the University of Virginia, the Office of Volunteer Community Service has recruited and trained 800 young adults for volunteer service to their communities. Orientation sessions on "the role of the volunteers" preceded supervised on-the-job training in a variety of human assistance agencies. The areas of concentration were: tutoring of disadvantaged youth in a big brother/big sister relationship, services to the elderly, recreational supervision, and assistance in general and psychiatric hospitals. This unified and coordinated effort has provided help to both young and old in need as well as develop higher levels of concern and competence in a large group of university students.

A parallel program initiated at California State University, Los Angeles, now involves four other institutions from Long Beach to Pomona. This widespread project entitled "Educational Participation in Communities" (EPIC) has, to date, trained 3,000 men and women who are performing vital services in 65 community agencies. In fiscal year 1972, the value of such assistance is estimated at $1 million.

The University of Pennsylvania has created an all-woman suburban training program to train and place volunteers in the urban area. Among the organizations and agencies to benefit from the project are a council on human relations, a crisis forum group, the panel of Philadelphians and police-community organizations.

These projects and similar ones in 12 other States are amply demonstrating the effective role that higher education institutions are playing in the education of volunteers for improved community service.

COMMUNITY EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY PROBLEMS

Community problem solving requires college-community cooperation in the development of continuing education activities to provide adults with the knowledge that must precede action.

Thus, communitywide education for adults is essential if progress is to be made in the amelioration of pressing community concerns. It is no longer acceptable to assume that adjustments in the education "of those who will inherit the problems" will suffice in our problem-plagued society. Flowing from this imperative is a process referred to as community education. Community education means developing community awareness about community problems, enhancing the skills of problem analysis, identifying alternative methods of attack and selecting the most promising educational strategies for alleviating the problem.

The community service and continuing education program fosters the development of such educational strategies by colleges and universities in concert with State and local governments, business, labor, volunteer organizations, and community groups.

Within the broad framework of problem areas listed in the enabling legislation, special emphasis was placed in 1972 on environmental quality, model cities efforts, local government services, and community organization. The following projects are illustrative of cooperative college-community activities related to these concerns:

THE ST. GEORGE CHARRETTE

The educational charrette is a technique, adapted from architecture, for the utilization of massive manpower applied in a short period of time to the accomplishment of plans and programs. From a week-long problem-solving session, specific strategies were evolved to guide the development of community services and facilities in the St. George area of Baltimore.

Designed by the faculty of Morgan State College for the basic task of planning a new elementary school, the Charrette involved more than 100 community residents, faculty, students, city officials, and consultants from State agencies. This concentrated effort was virtually in operation around the clock, i.e., almost on a 24-hour basis for 7 days.

While the central focus of the Charrette was the design of a community educational facility, the unique character of the process permitted identification of natural community linkages that related educational programs to recreational, health, and social service requirements of the community.

Following the intensive week-long sessions, agencies

and institutions refined and carried out plans with the following results:

A new community council organized

A task force chosen to design the new elementary school

Plans projected for a privately financed health center

A social service center scheduled

A community development plan

GOVERNMENTAL SERVICES—IDAHO

During the 6 years of State-operated programs of community service and continuing education about one-quarter of the Federal funds available under Title I, HEA, have been invested in the continuing education of State and local government officials and employees.

The State of Idaho, for example, has carried on a broadly conceived State program directed to the improvement of governmental operations and services. The nine projects initiated over the past 4 years served 1,167 individuals in long-term activities with an investment of $83,860 in Federal funds which was matched with $58,280 in local funds.

Thirty-five faculty members with 14 student assistants from four institutions of higher education were productively engaged in this community service program. Among the program components were: a series of seminars for public works officials based on two new publications, "A Public Works Construction Guide" and a "Review of Idaho Law on Public Construction"; an institute for legislative budget staff, courses, and technical assistance for city clerks and fiscal officers; continuing education for district health officers; and training sessions for water and waste treatment operators.

In recognition of the critical roles that elected officials and governmental employees play in community problem solving, many other college and universities allocated resources to such learning partnerships. In fiscal year 1972, thousands of public officials in 33 States were served through 79 continuing education projects supported under Title I of the Higher Education Act.

PROJECT UNDERSTANDING

More than 4,000 adults in the Milwaukee area were officially registered in "Project Understanding" as members of viewing posts. Homes, churches, schools, and libraries were among the 200 viewing posts organized to provide accurate information on human survival issues related to people, poverty, and pollution. Having viewed four one-half hour programs on station WMVS, discussed implications, and examined attitudes, citizens are now taking more effective action to improve their community. Participating in the discussion/action project were community leaders, businessmen, educators, clergy, housewives, blacks and whites. The project was a cooperative effort between University of Wisconsin Extension, National Conference of Christians and Jews, the Milwaukee Religious Broadcast Ministry and a host of community organizations.

ARA

The Mexican-American communities in Wyandotte County, Kans., in cooperation with the University of Kansas have enhanced the psychological climate of their residents. From a police-community relations project has grown a series of community education activities that will improve the Argentine, Rosedale, and Armourdale areas of Kansas City.

A new mood, or feeling, pervades these areas as communication links are forged between people and organizations that will enable the community to make better use of its personnel, knowledge, and resources. Already present are increased access to employment opportunities, better utilization of educational services, and improved coordination of resources within the community.

METROLINA ENVIRONMENTAL CONCERNS

Environmental decisionmaking requires accurate information and delineation of alternative courses of action. Six colleges and universities in North Carolina are aiding the people of the State to make decisions about environmental problems of the seventies. Through a multidimensional program of seminars, workshops, films, and educational television, hundreds of responsible and responsive citizens are dealing with the documented environmental problems across the State of North Carolina. Elected officials, regulatory boards, environmental activists, and developers/financiers are dealing with causes and effects as well as legal and social aspects of air and water pollution.

Thirty-two faculty members of the six institutions have been engaged in educational activities designed for specific groups in addition to general community

education programs. A battery of instructional aids have been developed: slide presentations, bibliographies, TV programs and videotape, and fact sheets. These materials provide a sound basis for enlarging the scope of the project in the coming year in metropolitan North Carolina (Metrolina).

In 26 additional States, more than 5,000 individuals have been learning and doing in relation to the improvement of environmental quality in nearly 50 different communities. Among these activities is the development of a citizens plan and program for the Chesapeake Bay area where the University of Maryland and five other colleges are cooperating with the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Chesapeake Bay Seafood Industries, American Oil Co., the Izaak Walton League, and the Maryland Wetlands Committee. And at Dartmouth College a two-year program called "New Hampshire Tomorrow" is continuing with assistance from local trust funds and the New England Regional Commission.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE PROGRAM

The community service and continuing education program is administered at three levels. The Office of Education is responsible for overall administration. The designated State agencies determine State priorities, select projects to be supported and oversee State program plans for community service and continuing education. And institutions of higher education carry out the educational projects.

Federal funds are distributed to the States on a formula basis after annual plans are approved by the U.S. Commissioner of Education. Federal funds are allotted with a basic amount of $100,000 to the 50 States and the District of Columbia, and $25,000 each to American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. The balance of each year's appropriation is distributed on the basis of total resident population within each jurisdiction. One-third of the annual program costs must be met with non-Federal funds. The program is operative in all 50 States, the District of Columbia, Guam, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands.

GENERAL DEVELOPMENTS IN FISCAL YEAR 1972

The community service and continuing education program, comprised of 1,575 educational projects, made significant progress toward the amelioration of national problems—social, economic, and political—as these problems are manifest in American communities.

The data presented here were derived from annual program reports and financial statements submitted by the States for fiscal year 1972.

A total of 843 projects (compared with 815 in fiscal year 1971) were in progress at the close of the fiscal year. In addition, 136 projects were planned with operations scheduled in the coming year. Fifteen projects were canceled when institutions were unable to replace project directors. The status of current Federally supported projects is shown in table 1.

The 576 projects reported as completed during fiscal year 1972 accounted for 36.6 percent of all project activity. Some 324 projects are being continued in fiscal year 1973 with 179 (55.2 percent) to be continued with Federal funds under Title I of the Higher Education Act and 145 (44.8 percent) being supported with funds from other sources. Further analysis of State reports provides the information which follows.

The number of completed projects directed to areas of special concern reached 295 in fiscal year 1972, representing a 17.1 percent increase over the previous year. Fifty-eight projects (compared with 26 in fiscal year 1971) were aimed at the improvement of environmental quality, 159 dealt with a wide variety of inner-city problems, 27 were related to Model Cities-Urban Observatories, 11 provided continuing education for women, eight were concerned with problems of the aged, and ten were drug abuse education projects.

There was increased utilization of college and university students in service to their communities as 11,732 (9,799 in fiscal year 1971) young men and women were actively engaged in 253 projects. Technical assistance/consultation was the most frequently reported activity with instructional services being a close second. Large numbers of students also made valuable contributions as interns in social agencies, as counselor/tutors, and as researchers in the development and conduct of cooperative endeavors between colleges and communities.

Of the 3,031 faculty members who were engaged in community service and continuing education projects, 391 (16.7 percent compared with 7 percent in 1971) spent more than half time on the projects. In addition, 611 (20 percent) devoted between one fourth and one half of their institutional time to community service activity. Most faculty members (67.2 percent) spent less than one quarter time on projects as a part of their assigned responsibilities.

State agencies continued to refine State plans for community service and continuing education and im-

Table 1. Distribution of community service and continuing education projects completed, in progress and planned in fiscal years 1970, 1971, and 1972

[By fiscal year of funding]

Reporting area	Completed							Total	In progress							Total	Planned				Total	Total grant area
	66	67	68	69	70	71	72		66	67	68	69	70	71	72		69	70	71	72		
1970 (34 [1] States)	10	66	175	156	29			436	10	15	108	236	140			719	4	160			164	1,319
1971 (46 States)	6	57	109	186	223	23		604	3	10	36	158	296	155		658	1	1	161		163	1,425 [2]
1972 (58 [1] States)	7	4	82	76	103	230	27	529	4	6	26	36	529	296	380	943	1			1	174	1,646 [2]

[1] Totals do not include 28 projects canceled during fiscal year 1971 and 11 projects canceled during fiscal year 1972.
[2] Refers to programs in both States and Territories.

proved the review and approval process for projects in relation to these plans.

The States reported receiving more than 1,300 proposals. Some projects were not supported because they were not directed at State-established priorities and others because they were inadequate in some measure. However, 303 eligible and viable projects could not be supported because of insufficient funds. The volume of institutional proposals for continuing education is shown in table 2.

Table 2. Disposition of institutional proposals for CMCE projects in fiscal year 1972

[In millions of dollars]

	Number	Federal funds requested
Proposals received	1,322	930.4 [1]
Proposals approved and funded [2]	329	12.2
Proposals approved and not funded	303	11.5
Proposals not approved	283	6.7 [1]

[1] Of the sums requested only $0.40 million were available.
[2] Estimated.

In close cooperation with the Office of Education, State agencies made marked progress toward the development of statewide programs of community service and continuing education. State administrators continued to consult with institutions about alternate sources of Federal support for projects that could not be funded under Title I. Three-fourths of the States conducted regional or statewide conferences for college and university personnel and more than one-half of the States issued regularly scheduled newsletters devoted to program development. By these means institutions of higher education were provided specific information on alternative funding sources and assistance in the development of complementary projects to be submitted to private agencies for support.

In the approval of institutional projects in fiscal year 1972 the States continued the urban oriented emphasis of the national program. The development of comprehensive projects to serve metropolitan areas as well as rural regions continued at approximately the same level as in the prior year. The distribution of projects by geographic area served is shown in table 3.

The allocation of Federal funds by the States is consistent with the geographic areas to be served. In 1972, 55.6 percent of the available resources were assigned to projects in urban and suburban areas, 19.6 percent to rural areas and 25.8 percent to comprehensive projects often statewide in orientation. The distribution of Federal funds by geographic area for fiscal years 1969–72 is shown in table 4.

Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 suggested nine broad problem areas to which higher continuing education resources might be directed. To this list, there have been added other areas of concern: economic development, human relations, personal development, education, and community development. Although community problems rarely fit concisely into the areas mentioned, the categories were to identify the major focus of each project. Therefore current projects are reported in terms of the central and ulti-

Table 3.—Number of projects by geographic area served

Area served	Fiscal year 1969		Fiscal year 1970		Fiscal year 1971		Fiscal year 1972	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Urban	364	56	284	47	198	36	237	44.8
Urban/suburban	50	7	61	10	75	14	63	11.9
Rural	58	9	66	11	68	13	67	12.7
Comprehensive	181	28	199	32	204	37	162	30.6
Totals	653	100	*610	100	545	100	529	100.0

Table 4.—Distribution of Federal funds by geographic area served

[In millions of dollars]

Area served	Fiscal year 1969		Fiscal year 1970		Fiscal year 1971		Fiscal year 1972	
	Federal funds	Percentage	Federal funds	Percentage	Federal funds	Percentage	Federal funds	Percentage
Urban	$5.1	60	$4.27	51	$3.47	41	$3.78	45.5
Urban/Suburban	.1	6	.83	10	1.14	14	.84	10.1
Rural	.6	7	.85	10	.88	10	.88	10.6
Comprehensive	2.3	27	2.53	29	2.91	35	2.80	33.8
Totals	8.5	100	8.48	100	8.40	100	8.30	100.0

mate concern of each project. The distribution of projects approved for support in fiscal year 1972 by problem area is shown in tables 5 and 6.

During the year, higher education institutions improved their ability to educationally assist in the solution of community problems through the increased use of off-campus learning centers. The number of these outreach stations reached 124 in fiscal year 1972.

In summary, the national program continued to strengthen the community-wide education programs of colleges and universities as it focused on the continuing education needs of community problem solvers and those segments of society most affected by social and economic dislocations. The States supported fewer but more comprehensive projects than in the past. By building on tested knowledge and experience, more effective programs were initiated that involved faculty and students in meaningful long-term community service programs and that will remain as permanent features of the institutions.

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES PARTICIPATING

In fiscal year 1972, 40 institutions of higher education were added to the list of those actively engaged in educational efforts related to locally identified community problems. Thus, a total of 572 colleges and universities in the several States are now providing new or improved continuing education services with Title I support. This increase is attributable in large measure to cooperative efforts between institutions where shared resources are focused on mutually defined continuing education need. As the States gave special attention to the improvement of outreach programs in community colleges, 33 additional 2-year institutions became productively involved.

Public colleges and universities provided the major share of institutional resources (66.6 percent) and received a larger proportion of Federal funds (77.6 percent). The participation rate of private institutions has

Tacle 5.—Number of State-approved projects

[By problem area and fiscal year of funding]

Problem area	1969	1970	1971	1972
Community development	177	152	138	155
Education	(1)	42	39	37
Employment	22	10	17	9
Economic development	22	27	22	30
Government	152	80	71	79
Health	45	44	36	28
Housing	4	7	6	9
Human relations	42	47	44	44
Land use	23	35	47	40
Poverty	33	36	32	29
Personal development	58	73	65	83
Recreation	33	17	10	7
Transportation	2	3	1	2
Youth opportunities	40	27	17	17
Totals	653	610	545	529

[1] Separate category started in fiscal year 1970 for projects related to the education system, most of which were previously included in the "Government" category.

remained relatively constant over the past 4 years. In 1972, private institutions account for 33.4 percent of the institutions participating. The number of institutions involved and the distribution of Federal funds by type of institution are shown in tables 7 and 8.

Since the inception of the program in 1966, more than 1,000 colleges and universities have participated in efforts to strengthen their community service program. During these development years, a number of small and/or private institutions have been identified that have the willingness to establish programs of community service. Small startup grants have been made to some 100 such institutions to enable them to engage in first-time ventures. Over time about two-thirds of these institutions have been able to sustain their involvement while the remaining one-third have engaged in occasional efforts.

FINANCING THE PROGRAM

One-third of annual costs for State programs of community service and continuing education must be met with non-Federal funds. In fiscal year 1972, the States, local communities, and higher education institutions invested $5.8 million to match $8.3 million in Federal funds to support 529 community service projects. The States also provided 8.5 million to match 81 million in Federal funds for administration of the program. In sum, the States and institutions of higher education invested $1.6 million beyond the required matching ratio of one local dollar for every two Federal dollars.

The major share (81.5 percent) of matching funds was provided by colleges and universities for projects reported as completed in fiscal year 1972. Funds supplied by State and local governments rose to 12.3 percent of total matching funds while the remaining 6.2 percent was provided from private or individual sources. Sources of matching funds are shown in table 9.

The data presented above reflect only projects that were undertaken with Federal support. Of greater concern are those college and university proposals directed to State-determined priorities which could not be supported for lack of funds. The States report that to have supported the 303 viable projects that were approved, but for which no funds were available, would have required an additional $11.5 million in Federal funds.

The States also reported that adequate support of the 529 approved projects called for $3.8 million more than State agencies were able to provide from their Federal allotments. In sum, the State plans and institutional response in fiscal year 1972 required a total of almost $24 million in Federal funds.

CONCLUSION

Society in general expects higher education institutions to increase their community oriented educational services in relation to such concerns as obsolescence in professional careers, technical assistance to small businessmen, policy determination for State and local governments and the changing role of women.

The 54-State programs effectively demonstrate the mutually beneficial relationship between equals—the college and the community. Within the limits of available resources, these State programs provide a system for effective access to and utilization of higher education resource for public problem solving.

The number of institutions participating in the program increased from 531 in fiscal year 1971 to 572 in fiscal year 1972. Resources were made available from these new participants through interinstitutional arrangements, or consortia, for regional and statewide programs of continuing education. One fourth (109) of all projects initiated this year called for two or more

Table 6.—Distribution of Federal and local program funds for State-approved projects

[By problem area and fiscal year of funding, in thousands of dollars]

Problem area	1969		1970		1971		1972	
	Federal funds	Local funds	Federal funds	Local funds	Federal funds	Local funds	Federal funds	Local funds
Community development	$3,063.1	$2,162.6	$2,741.3	$1,934.9	$2,600.8	$1,969.2	$2,181.6	$1,457.6
Education	(1)	(1)	510.5	360.7	525.5	381.8	604.5	500.5
Employment	264.4	188.9	100.8	51.9	224.5	166.4	144.7	98.8
Economic development	206.7	180.0	316.3	266.1	204.0	162.7	307.2	229.0
Government	1,698.7	1,356.8	1,397.1	864.8	1,133.9	736.7	1,072.6	706.7
Health	417.0	379.7	345.4	192.8	426.1	607.6	356.9	266.3
Housing	13.0	10.1	70.5	72.8	65.2	63.5	167.3	97.0
Human relations	694.9	566.4	614.5	379.3	551.5	431.6	600.0	474.2
Land use	203.3	122.5	397.2	266.7	637.3	527.0	496.5	333.5
Poverty	421.5	269.6	560.3	335.7	594.9	378.3	470.4	290.7
Personal development	762.3	578.9	774.3	691.5	919.9	623.5	1,409.2	979.9
Recreation	326.0	229.3	191.9	136.9	94.7	75.9	72.7	39.0
Transportation	4.6	2.8	46.8	42.5	12.0	12.0	17.7	11.8
Youth opportunities	420.5	383.9	420.7	307.0	241.8	133.8	236.3	124.9
Totals	8,504.0	6,431.5	8,407.5	5,903.6	8,400.1	6,270.0	8,297.6	5,771.9

[1] Separate category started in fiscal year 1970 for programs related to the education system most of which were previously included in the "Government" category.

Table 7.—Number and type of participating institutions

[By fiscal year of funding]

Type of institution	1969		1970		1971		1972	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Land-grant and State universities	79	22	90	18	87	17	90	15.7
Four-year public	100	31	134	27	161	30	156	27.3
Four-year private	105	30	169	34	169	32	180	31.5
Two-year public	46	14	96	19	102	19	135	23.6
Two-year private	13	3	12	2	12	2	11	1.9
Totals	[1] 404	100	351	100	531	100	572	100.0

[1] Distribution for fiscal year 1969 includes only those institutions receiving Federal funds while the fiscal years 1970 through 1972 distributions include all primary and cooperating institutions. Comparable figures for fiscal year 1969 were 434 institutions.

Table 8.—Distribution of Federal program funds by type of participating institution

[By fiscal year of funding, in thousands of dollars]

Type of institution	1969		1970		1971		1972	
	Federal funds	Percentage	Federal funds	Percentage	Federal funds	Percentage	Federal funds	Percentage
Land-grant and State universities	54,226.4	49.7	54,047.2	47.7	53,522.7	41.9	53,329.0	42.5
Four-Year Public	1,717.8	20.2	1,824.3	21.5	2,016.7	24.0	2,130.3	25.9
Four-Year Private	1,773.3	20.9	1,824.5	21.5	2,027.4	24.2	1,836.8	22.3
Two-Year Public	663.3	7.8	752.2	8.8	790.5	9.4	756.6	9.2
Two-Year Private	119.1	1.4	39.3	.5	62.8	.5	11.9	.1
Totals	8,503.9	100.0	8,487.5	100.0	8,400.1	100.0	8,297.6	100.0

Table 9.—Source of matching funds for community service and continuing education projects completed in fiscal year 1972

Source of matching funds	Number of projects	Percent
Institutional funds	470	81.6
State/local government funds	71	12.3
Fees	18	3.1
Private funds	9	1.6
Miscellaneous combinations	8	1.4
Totals	576	100.0

colleges to share human and physical resources in projects related to the environment, minority business, women, and paraprofessional personnel. A significant aspect of this development was the involvement of 33 additional community colleges.

The number of institutional projects was reduced from 343 to 329, thus providing modest increases in support of high priority projects that are directed to national needs. An accompanying gain was the growth in comprehensive instructional projects for specific target groups.

The State administrative structures which have been established constitute a reservoir of educational skill and experience that is being employed in the planning and coordination of Federal and State programs that have related goals and objectives.

Higher education institutions reflect in their structures and program the beneficial impact of Federal support and State-initiated planning. Beyond the earlier cited evidences of the program's achievements, none surpass the changes wrought and improvements made in the community-serving capability of colleges and universities. Among the reported curriculum development, faculty and administrative appointments, improved methods of service delivery, and experimentation, one innovation ranks as paramount: the creation of off-campus learning centers. The establishment and operation of 124 such Community Service Centers provide innovative programs of instruction organized at times and geographic locations that enable adults to more fully participate.

From State plans, institutional proposals and operating projects developed under Title I of the Higher Education Act, it is evident that no other Federal program provides comparable support for the college level continuing education of adults. This program demonstrated new approaches to learning for significant segments of the population: the aging, local and State government officials, minority group members, community leaders, women and prison inmates.

Further analysis of the community service and continuing education program reveals that the amelioration of community problems requires a knowledge

delivery system. The several States have made significant progress in the development and refinement of such delivery systems in relation to environmental quality, drug abuse, community organization, improved governmental services, and economic growth.

As the States and institutions of higher education evaluate their plans, adjust their programs and launch new initiatives, the process of community problem solving through continuing education is being significantly improved. □

Appendix C

LISTING BY PROGRAM TITLE AND ADMINISTERING AGENCY OF FEDERALLY FINANCED PROGRAMS WHICH IN WHOLE OR IN PART SUPPORT ACTIVITY IN EXTENSION, CONTINUING EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY SERVICE

The following list is based substantially on the Office of Management and Budget's *Catalogue of Federal Domestic Assistance* for fiscal year 1972. Where applicable, program titles and identification numbers are keyed to this document.

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

1. Child Development—Head Start—13.600
2. Drug Abuse Prevention—13.420
3. University Community Service—Grants to States—13.491 (CSCE Programs)
4. Civil Rights Technical Assistance and Training
5. Educationally Deprived Children—Migrants—13.429
6. Educationally Deprived Children—Local Educational Agencies (Title I, ESEA—part A)—13.428
7. Educationally Deprived Children—State Administration (Title I, ESEA—State Administration)—13.430
8. Educational Classroom Personnel Training—Teacher Training and Development Institute
9. Adult Education—Grants to States (Teacher Training)—13.400
10. Adult Education—Special Projects—13.401
11. Adult Education—Teacher Education—13.402
12. Educational Classroom Personnel Training—Special Education—13.417
13. Educational Personnel Training Grants—Career Opportunities (Career Opportunities Program)—13.421
14. Educational Research Training—13.424
15. Educational Staff Training—School Personnel Utilization (School Personnel Utilization Program)—13.423
16. Educationally Deprived Children—Handicapped (Public Law 89-313)—13.427
17. Fulbright-Hays Training Grants—Faculty Research Abroad—13.438
18. Handicapped Physical Education and Recreation Training—13.448
19. Handicapped Teacher Education (Training Teachers for the Handicapped)—13.431
20. Higher Education Personnel Development—Institutes and Short-Term Training (EPDA, part E Institutes)—13.461
21. Library Training Grants (Library Institute and Fellowship Program)—13.468
22. Preschool, Elementary, and Secondary Personnel Development—Grants to States (State Grants Program)—13.473
23. Teacher Corps—Operations and Training—13.489
24. Training of Teacher Trainers (Triple T. Program)—13,490
25. Vocational Education—Basic Grants to States—13.493
26. Vocational Education—Consumer and Homemaking—13.494
27. Vocational Education Personnel Development Awards—13.303
28. Vocational Education Personnel Development Professional Personnel Development for States—13.304
29. Educational Personnel Development—Urban/Rural School Development—13.305
30. Teacher Training in Developing Institutions—13.307
31. Educational Personnel Development—Media Specialists (Media Specialists)—13.308
32. Educational Personnel Development—Pupil Personnel Specialists—13.309
33. Educational Personnel Development—Educational Leadership (Educational Administration Program)—13.314
34. Educational Staff Training—Volunteers in Education (VIE)—13.315
35. Environmental Education—13.322
36. Educational Broadcasting Facilities (Public Broadcasting)—13.413
37. Emergency Health—Community Preparedness—13.214
38. Regional Medical Programs—Operation and Planning Grants—13.249
39. Occupational Health Training Grants—13.263
40. Occupational Health Special Fellowships (Fellowships)—13.264
41. Disease Control—Training Public Health Workers—13.203
42. Comprehensive Health Planning—Training, Studies, and Demonstrations (314(c), Partnership for Health)—13,208
43. Health Services Research and Development—Fellowships and Training—13.225

44. Health Statistics Training and Technical Assistance—13.227
45. Maternal and Child Health Training—13.233
46. Mental Health Fellowships—13.241
47. Mental Health Scientific Communications and Public Education—13.243
48. Mental Health Training Grants—13.244
49. Mental Health—Community Assistance Grants for Comprehensive Alcoholism Services—13.251
50. Family Planning Services—Training Grants—13.260
51. Allied Health Professions Special Project Grants—13.305
52. Professional Nurse Traineeships (Nurse Traineeships, Traineeships for Professional Nurses)—13.358
53. Nurse Training Improvement—Special Projects (Special Projects Grants: Project Grants for Nursing Education)—13.359
54. Special Predoctoral and Postdoctoral Fellowships in Nursing Research (Nursing Fellowships)—13.360
55. Nurse Scientist Graduate Training Grants (Grants for Training Nurse-Scientists)—13.362
56. Nursing Scholarships—13.363
57. Professional Public Health Personnel—Traineeships (Public Health Traineeships)—13.366
58. Animal Resources—Fellowships—13.367
59. Animal Resources—Training Grants—13.368
60. Schools of Public Health—Grants (Hill-Rhodes Grants—13.370
61. Cancer—Graduate Training—13.373
62. Family Medicine—Training Grants (Family Medicine)—13.379
63. Health Professions Teaching Personnel—Training, Traineeships, and Fellowships (Health Professions Teacher Training)—13.385
64. Allergy and Infectious Diseases—Fellowships and Research Career Development Awards—13.302
65. Allergy and Infectious Diseases—Training Grants—13.300
66. Allied Health Professions—Traineeship Grants for Advanced Training—13.303
67. Arthritis and Metabolic Diseases—Fellowships—13.307
68. Cancer—Clinical Training—13.311
69. Cancer—Research Fellowships—13.313
70. Cancer—Research Career Development—13.315
71. Child Health and Human Development—Fellowships—13.316
72. Child Health and Human Development—Training Grants—13.318
73. Dental Auxiliary Utilization Training Grants (Team)—13.319
74. Dental Health Continuing Education Training Grants—13.320
75. Dental Research—Fellowships—13.324
76. Dental Research—Training Grants—13.326
77. Environmental Health Science—Fellowships—13.329
78. Environmental Health Sciences—Training Grants—13.329
79. Eye Research—Fellowships—13.330
80. Eye Research—Training Grants—13.332
81. General Medical Sciences—Fellowships—13.334
82. General Medical Sciences—Training Grants—13.336
83. Graduate Training in Public Health—Project Grants (Public Health Project Grants)—13.338
84. Health Professions—Scholarships (HP Scholarships)—13.341
85. Heart and Lung Research—Fellowships—13.344
86. Heart and Lung Research—Graduate Training Grants—13.345
87. Medical Library Assistance—Training Grants (Health Communications Specialist Training)—13.353
88. Neurological Diseases and Stroke—Fellowships (Special Traineeships, Postdoctoral Research Fellowships, and Research Career Development Awards)—13.354
89. Neurological Diseases and Stroke—Graduate Training Grants—13.355
90. Public Assistance—State and Local Training—13.724
91. Youth-Development and Delinquency Prevention—13.764
92. New Careers in Vocational Rehabilitation—
93. New Career Opportunities for the Handicapped
94. Child Welfare Training
95. Rehabilitation Services and Facilities—Special Projects (Rehabilitation Service Projects)—13.763
96. Development Disabilities—Demonstration Facilities and Training (UAF's)—13.760
97. Developmental Disabilities—Special Projects—13.759
98. Comprehensive Social and Rehabilitation Training (Manpower Development and Training)—13.758
99. Aging—Special Support Projects (Aging Programs)—13.756

NATIONAL SCIENCE FOUNDATION

1. Short Courses for College Teachers
2. Summer Institutes for College Teachers
3. Fellowships and Traineeship Program (Graduate Fellowships, and Graduate Traineeships in Science)—47.009
4. Pre-College Instructional Personnel Development (Academic Year, In-Service and Summer Institutes and Short Courses)—47.019
5. Pre-College Instructional Program Development (Cooperative College-School Science (CCSS) Projects; Course Content Improvement (CCI) Projects)—47.020
6. Scientific Conference Grants—47.028
7. Undergraduate Instructional Personnel Development (College Teacher Programs: Summer Institutes and Short Courses)—47.032
8. Undergraduate Instructional Program Development (Science Course Improvement Program, College Science Improvement Program, Preservice Teacher Education Development Program, Undergraduate Instructional Scientific Equipment Program)—47.033
9. Intergovernmental Science Programs—47.036
10. Public Understanding of Science Program—47.038
11. Academic Year Institutes for Secondary School Teachers—
12. Summer Institutes and Short Courses for Secondary School Teachers
13. In-service Institute for Secondary School Teachers
14. Cooperative College-School Science Program
15. Cooperative Projects for Two-Year Colleges

ATOMIC ENERGY COMMISSION

1. Nuclear Education and Training—Faculty Research Participation—24.004
2. Nuclear Education and Training—Faculty-Student Conferences—24.005
3. Nuclear Education and Training—Faculty-Student Experiments—24.006
4. Nuclear Education and Training—Faculty Training Institutes (Summer Insitutes)—24.007
5. Nuclear Education and Training—Faculty Workshops (Workshops)—24.008
6. Nuclear Education and Training—Laboratory Graduate Participants (Lab-Grad Participation)—24.010
7. Nuclear Education and Training—Medical Radioisotope Course—24.012
8. Nuclear Education and Training—Mobile Radioisotope Laboratory—24.013
9. Nuclear Education and Training—Nuclear Medical Technology Course—24.014
10. Nuclear Education and Training—Radio-isotope Techniques Training Courses—24.013
11. Radiation Control—Training Assistance and Advisory Counseling—24.027
12. Nuclear Materials Safeguards Training (Safeguards Training)—24.031
13. Uranium Industry Workshops (Workshops)—24.029

NATIONAL FOUNDATION ON THE ARTS AND THE HUMANITIES

1. Promotion of the Arts--Education—45.003
2. Promotion of the Humanities—Fellowships and Summer Stipends for Younger Humanists—45.102
3. Promotion of the Humanities—Public Programs—45.104
4. Promotion of the Humanities—Senior Fellowships—45.106
5. Promotion of the Humanities—Fellowships for Guided Study in Selected Fields—45.107
6. Promotion of the Humanities—Fellowships for Junior College Teachers—45.108
7. Promotion of the Humanities—Fellowships for the Professions—45.109
8. Promotion of the Humanities—Education Planning and Development—45.110
9. Promotion of the Humanities—Education Project—45.111
10. Promotion of the Humanities—Museum Personnel Development—45.112
11. Promotion of the Humanities—Regional Projects—45.113

DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE

1. Law Enforcement Assistance—Narcotics and Dangerous Drugs Training—16.004
2. Public Education on Drug Abuse—Technical Assistance—16.005
3. Law Enforcement Assistance—FBI Advanced Police Training (FBI National Academy)—16.300
4. Law Enforcement Assistance—FBI Field Police Training (FBI Field Police Training)—16.302
5. Law Enforcement Assistance—Improving and Strengthening Law Enforcement (Safe Streets, Crime Control)—16.502
6. Law Enforcement Assistance—Technical Assistance (Safe Streets, Crime Control)—16.503
7. Law Enforcement Research and Development—Project Grants—16.507
8. Law Enforcement Research and Development—Visiting Fellowships—16.508
9. Law Enforcement Education Program—Student Financial Aid (LEEP)—16.304
10. Law Enforcement Assistance—Educational Development—16.511
11. Law Enforcement Assistance—Training (407)—16.513

ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AGENCY

1. Water Pollution Control—State and Interstate Program Grants (Section 7 Grants)—66.497
2. Water Quality and Pollution Control—Orientation and Training Seminars (STORET (STOrage and RETrieval) System Training)—66.412
3. Water Pollution Control—State and Local Manpower Development—66.408
4. Water Pollution Control—Direct Training (WQO Short Courses)—66.403
5. Solid Waste Technical Assistance, Trainings and Information Services—66.304
6. Solid Waste Training Grants—66.303
7. Radiation Training Grants—66.201
8. Air Pollution Control—Technical Training—66.006
9. Air Pollution Manpower Training Grants—66.003

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR

1. Indian Agricultural Extension—15.101
2. Indian Community Development—15.104
3. Indian Industrial and Tourism Development and On-The-Job Training—15.117
4. Mine Health and Safety Education and Training—15.305
5. Water Resources Research—Assistance to States for Institutes (Annual Allotment Program)—15.951
6. Water Resources Research—Matching Grants to State Institutes (Matching Grant Program)—15.952
7. Cooperative Research Program

DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE

1. Civil Defense—Staff College (Student Expense Program (SEP))—12.314
2. Civil Defense—University Extension—12.320
3. Civil Defense—Education (Personal and Family Survival)—12.323
4. Civil Defense—Architect/Engineer Faculty Development—12.300
5. Civil Defense—Architect/Engineer Professional Development—12.301

DEPARTMENT OF HOUSING AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT

1. Community Development Training Grants (Title VIII)—14.202
2. Model Cities Supplementary Grants (Model Cities)—14.300
3. Comprehensive Planning Assistance ("701")—14.203
4. Urban Planning Research and Demonstration ("701(b)" Program)—14.504

PRESIDENT'S COUNCIL ON PHYSICAL FITNESS AND SPORTS

1. Physical Fitness Clinics (President's Council Fitness Clinics)—55.004
2. Physical Fitness Demonstration Center Schools—55.005
3. Physical Fitness Program Development—55.006
4. Health-Exercise Symposia—55.008

VETERANS ADMINISTRATION

1. Education and Training of Health Personnel—64.003
2. Veterans Educational Assistance (GI Bill)—64.111
3. Vocational Rehabilitation for Disabled Veterans (Vocational Rehabilitation)—64.116
4. War Orphans and Widows Educational Assistance—64.117

OFFICE OF ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY

1. Drug Rehabilitation
2. Legal Services
3. Comprehensive Health Services (Neighborhood Health Center)

DEPARTMENT OF THE TREASURY

1. Alcohol, Tobacco, and Firearms—21.002
2. Tax Information and Education—21.003
3. Secret Service—Training Activities—21.100

SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION

1. Academic Appointments (Higher Education and Research Training Programs)—60.002
2. Educational Services—Elementary and Secondary Education (School Services)—60.005
3. Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars Fellowships and Guest Scholar Programs—60.020

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

1. Public Service Careers—17.224
2. Public Employment Program (REP)—17.229
3. Technology Mobilization and Reemployment (TMRP Scientist's and Engineer's Program)—17.231
4. Manpower Development and Training—Institutional Training (MDTA Institutional)—17.215

CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

1. Training Assistance to State and Local Governments—27.009
2. Intergovernmental Personnel Grants—27.012

SMALL BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

1. Management Assistance to Small Business—59.005
2. Management and Technical Assistance for Disadvantaged Businessmen—Research and Demonstration Grants (406 Grants)—59.007

DEPARTMENT OF TRANSPORTATION

1. Aviation Education—20.100
2. Urban Mass Transportation Grants for University Research and Training (URT Program)—20.502

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

1. Sea Grant Support—11.417
2. Minority Business Enterprise—Coordination and Technical Assistance (OMBE)—11.800

TENNESSEE VALLEY AUTHORITY

1. Fertilizer Development—62.001
2. Agriculture Development in the Tennessee Valley

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

1. Cooperative Extension Service—10.500

NATICNAL AERONAUTICS AND SPACE ADMINISTRATION

1. Space Science Education Project (Spacemobile)—43.001

NATIONAL GALLERY OF ART

1. National Gallery of Art Extension Service—68.001

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